

bulletin





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THE UNITED NATIONS AND SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

Harmony To Save Succeeding Generations From the Scourge of War

by Ambassador Warren R. Austin¹

In responding to the distinguished invitation to me of Dr. Koussevitsky to join others in brief addresses at this gala concert and manifestation, given for the benefit of the Berkshire Music Center, my desire has been fulfilled which has abided with me for 2 years—ever since I was obliged to regret an invitation from Dr. Koussevitsky to come here.

I am inspired by the realization that here is a truly international community speaking a universal language.

We are all working toward harmony.

Your pursuit of the science of structure, relation, and progression of chords of music and the purpose, ideals, and universal aim of the United Nations to "save succeeding generations from the scourge of war" are parallel. They depend upon the highest degree of cooperation. They call for firm adherence to principles. They require that accord supersede discord.

However slow the process of mastering the medium in which we work, we advance with faith and vision of the ultimate harmony.

Fifty-nine nations now adhere to the Charter of the United Nations. The first declaration of that Charter is "We the peoples of the United Nations determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war . . . have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims."

Thereafter, the great lights of morality, freedom, tolerance, human rights, self-determination of peoples, cultural and educational cooperation began to illuminate this voluntary association and revealed the way to removal of causes of war.

More than military strength, or economic power, these spiritual principles expressed in understanding, purposeful and resolute action—can lead us into the shadow of that great rock of collective security.

We have already agreed that our objective is to be sought through international organization. The form in which we have it now was the highest attainable at San Francisco. In the relatively brief 4 years of its life it has not attained its stride. Time does not permit me to review here the many phases of development which have occurred in these 4 years, and it is not my purpose to do so, because I speak of an idea that is supported by both those who understand that the progress of the United Nations has been substantial, and those who are skeptical and dissatisfied.

All of us agree on the goal, but we disagree on method and technique. Some people have organized themselves into civic groups which advocate turning the United Nations into a "world government."

In the brief time which your convenience permits, I wish to make but two points. They are cautions. One is the care which you must take in promoting world government; the other is the importance, indeed the necessity of preserving the United Nations, whether we strive for world government or for any other progress in international cooperation.

The decision that confronts us does not compel a choice, at this time, between government and voluntary association. We now have voluntary association, and we may continue to enjoy and develop that into what might be termed world government in the future.

Comprehending both the people who are dis-

¹ Address made at the Berkshire Musical Festival at Lenox, Mass., on Aug. 12, 1949, and released to the press by the United States Mission to the United Nations on the same date.

satisfied with the progress of the United Nations, and favor the prompt establishment of world government, and those people who are reasonably satisfied with the progress of the United Nations, yet consider government more ideal than association, the atmosphere of public opinion is favorable to general statements advocating world government. This is a cause for study of the subject with particular regard for our fundamental purpose.

Assuming that we do not disapprove the world government idea, the major objective of saving "succeeding generations from the scourge of war," nevertheless, demands our loyal support of the voluntary association which is now developing the necessary harmony. There can be no intermission in history while the statesmen of the world sit down to write a world constitution. No impartial referee is going to blow a whistle and give us time out and a fresh start in the second half. We must deal with the world we have and the tools we have.

Although some advocates of world government realize the dangers of demanding a review conference of the United Nations if it is not preceded by the most careful kind of prolonged negotiation, let us carefully examine the hazards of calling a world government conference now.

First, there might be involved a separation of the members of the United Nations into different federations or voluntary associations. I have been told by advocates of world government that I could not be certain that the United Nations would be divided by a conference carried to its logical conclusion at this time. My answer is that I am persuaded by experience that we cannot, at this time or within the predictable future, have agreement among the five great powers upon such amendments of the Charter as are indispensable for the transformation of the United Nations from a voluntary association into a government.

Pursuant to a resolution of the General Assembly, the five great powers met and explored the questions involved in removing the special privilege of the veto in two groups of cases, whether by amendment of the Charter or by agreement, namely: In pacific settlement of disputes and in admission of new members. It was utterly impossible to arrive at voluntary agreement in these lesser problems. This was a much less difficult matter than amendment of the Charter. How, then, could agreement be arrived at in the greater problems—such as further limitation of the special privilege of the veto, the general principles governing reduction of armaments and armed forces, international ownership, control and effective safeguard of atomic energy from destructive use? The number, types, and strength of contingents of armed forces and contributions of armaments to be made by each mem-

ber; or in the alternative, by what members? These greater problems are still troubling the diplomats and statesmen as well as the military establishments of the world. The proponents of government in place of voluntary association proposed to abandon all those who are unwilling to give up the veto privilege and to sacrifice sovereignty in other essential ways. They would form a government consisting of those countries who are willing. This, of course, means splitting the United Nations. This means the destruction of the principle of universality.

A federation having the power to enact laws and enforce them would not in these circumstances be world government or world federation. It would not be world-wide. A salient question is: Are we to abandon the principle of universality? This is a vital decision to make because peace is conceived to be a condition of agreement and harmony among all the nations of the world. Especially is this true with respect to the so-called five great powers.

Assuming that we have faith in the fundamental principles of the Charter of the United Nations to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and to insure by the acceptance of these principles, and the institution of methods under them, that armed force shall not be used save in the common interest, it is clear that we must not break the combination which we created to effectuate such principles. We would thereby render impossible the cooperation necessary for the foundation of abiding and prevailing peace. We would set up the opposite of it, and that is competing organizations—at least two of them—one led by the United States; the other led by the Soviet Union. The logical effect of such a situation would be a residual bloc or blocs, unable, for various reasons, to become a member of either the so-called world government, led, for the time being, by the United States, or the Soviet bloc led by the Soviet Union.

Are we not firmly convinced that the principle of universality should be protected and promoted? Is it not clear that the cause of peace would be better served with the Soviet group and all other member states remaining in the United Nations?

Now, let us consider a convention unanimously amending the Charter of the United Nations into a world government.

I am persuaded that some people have no conception, or only a vague conception, of what establishment of world government would involve. We should pause in contemplation of the risk of seeking to establish any world government now.

Assuming that the Charter could be amended by the elimination of the special privilege of veto in the voting of the Security Council, and the special privilege of the veto upon ratification by the several permanent member countries, how much of the sovereignty of each country must be vested in the world government? If its laws shall govern individuals as well as states, what will be the

dividing line between the jurisdictions and judicial powers of world government and the several states? Is it as simple a problem as that of the United States, which required a civil war, and repeated judicial decision, to determine?

We are not likely to launch upon a course of action in the high probability of war. Our purpose is to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war.

Moreover, we are confronted by different conditions from those which prevailed in the United States, such as the lack of any experience in self-government of 80 percent of the people of the world, the great unbalance between states in technical facilities and production, the fear of the minority-advanced states of being controlled by the majority-retarded peoples, the danger of tyranny developing from the power to police the world.

There is scarcely a single feature of establishing a government for the whole world, which does not contain risks of the peace. This should give us pause. Beyond that, however, it is our duty to consider the risks that would follow the creation of such a supergovernment. Would it remain a democratic state? Is totalitarianism not a risk through the political changes characteristic of any government? Assuming that this federation or government commenced as a democratic one, with free institutions, and possessed military power predominant over the great powers, do we not face the risk of misuse by those great powers or some of them? Ought the United States to join the other members of the United Nations in submission to an armed force that is predominant in power? It certainly was not willing to do so at the time the United Nations Charter was adopted.

The peace forces of the Charter are not contemplated for such purpose. Indeed, the idea of unanimity among the great powers was essential to peace. A breach by one of the great powers was recognized as a threat to the United Nations leading to possible war. Peace forces we must have in order to perfect the organization and to exercise those functions which peace officers exercise in the domestic government. They are not created to make war, or to overwhelm the great powers, or any of them. Moreover, the Charter, in article 51, recognizes the principle of individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs against a member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security.

I consider it significant of the continuing conviction of certain members of the United Nations, that the Atlantic Treaty provides for self-help and mutual aid among 12 members thereof, in such an event.

We also recognize the Act of Chapultepec, the

pact of Rio, and the Arab League, as consistent with this doctrine of the United Nations.

Frequent recurrence, and a firm adherence to the fundamental principles of the Charter of the United Nations is necessary to keep us steadfastly substituting for force, pacific settlement of disputes.

The cooperation which we seek in the United Nations is founded upon those great moral principles of the Charter.

I have finished all I wish to say at this time on the point that we must take great care in the promotion of world government, and envisage it only as a long-term objective.

Now, a brief statement about the other point: The necessity of preserving the United Nations. Above all other objectives at the present time, we the peoples of the United Nations are determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war. There is no organization other than the United Nations to perform this function. It has become a vast organization in its influence. It is made up of the most numerous group of states ever combined for this purpose. Its personnel comprises leading statesmen, technicians, jurists, educators, scientists, farmers, physicians, linguists, translators, and other specialists in many fields of activity.

It has established its headquarters in the United States of America. This decision was made in large part because of the confidence of peoples of the world in the leadership and great resources of the United States, moral and material. And yet this organization is so young that it was recently called "a baby."

Its achievements, in so short a life, command the encouragement and support of all peoples of democratic faith. The total strength of the American people should be summoned to the great struggle for peace which is going on in the United Nations.

On the side of collective security we observe that every international disturbance which threatened the peace of the world during the short life of the United Nations was brought to the United Nations. In no case has there been failure, and in no case did the United Nations have peace forces to employ. In every case pacific methods prevailed to prevent or confine the fighting and to lead toward settlement. I need only to mention Berlin, Palestine, Indonesia, Kashmir, Greece, and Korea to remind you that, to some degree, the United Nations has succeeded in every case. The direction is the main point, but in fact, in some of these cases the United Nations has advanced a great distance toward the ultimate settlement.

In other words, there is the proof that the United Nations is serving the cause of peace, and there is ground for faith in future progress on the security front.

The United Nations does not guarantee peace. No structure yet devised, will guarantee peace un-

less it be the deadly peace imposed by the victorious aggressor. Such peace, of course, lasts only as long as the predominant power can remain in control. But the United Nations does intervene with pacific methods and causes peace by agreement. Peace thus established gives promise of enduring.

The United Nations is working toward the establishment of world law, toward the development of a world economy, toward the removal of such causes of war as poverty, ill health, economic hatreds, and toward the improvement and perfecting of its own machinery for the substitution of sanctions for peace other than force.

We regard this voluntary organization as one having the vital spark of life for growth. We are eagerly receptive to all thoughtful criticism, to all suggestions for the refining and strengthening of our international machinery. But the strength of the nation cannot be given to us without the expression of well-informed and interested public opinion.

It is difficult to convince the world of allegiance to the United Nations if such organizations concern themselves chiefly with attempting to amend the Charter in fundamental respects. Their publicity ought to demonstrate interest in the operation of the great moral and political principles of the United Nations.

It was suggested to me here in Lenox about a week ago that it might be well for the United States Mission to the United Nations to invite these organizations to send their leaders to visit the United Nations. They are now invited, and will be welcomed by the Mission. A word from any of them to me will bring a more formal bid. Those who are unaware of the work that is there being done are building their house, without foundation, upon sand. Those who build upon achievement by the United Nations are like the "wise man, which built his house upon a rock:

"And the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house; and it fell not: for it was founded upon a rock."

It is the intention of the United States Mission to the United Nations to make its facilities increasingly available and to promote greater access by the public, including these organizations, to the material of the United Nations itself.

I think it is not too much to suggest that these organizations could, in their publicity, give energy to the leadership of the United States within the United Nations. They could support specific policies and operations.

In any event, if their emphasis must be upon the far-distant objective of world government, still they ought to see that by helping to improve United Nations methods and structure, and to support its policies and fundamental principles,

they are taking the most direct course toward their ultimate objective.

The United Nations as it now stands is not only our best hope for peace, it is our only hope for peace. It represents the highest degree of cooperation that is possible today in the family of nations. Every long-range plan for a better, a more universal, and more effective international organization ought to be examined in the light of these questions: What does it do for the United Nations? What does it do to the organization we now have?

It must be clear that, in the long run, any policy that is good for the United Nations will represent realistic progress toward world government, and that all intelligent work for world government ought to be work for the United Nations.

Resolutions on the Palestine Question

U.N. doc. S/1376
Adopted August 11, 1949

I

The Security Council,

HAVING TAKEN NOTE of the report of the Acting United Nations Mediator on Palestine, submitted upon the completion of his responsibilities,

Desires to pay special tribute to the qualities of patience, perseverance and devotion to the ideal of international peace of the late Count Folke Bernadotte, who stabilized the situation in Palestine and who, together with ten members of his staff, gave his life in the service of the United Nations, and

Desires to express its deep appreciation of the qualities of tact, understanding, perseverance and devotion to duty of Dr. Ralph J. Bunche, Acting United Nations Mediator on Palestine, who has brought to a successful conclusion the negotiation of armistice agreements between Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria on the one hand, and Israel on the other, and

Desires also to associate in this expression of appreciation the members of the staff of the United Nations Mission in Palestine, including both the members of the United Nations Secretariat and the Belgian, French, Swedish and United States Officers who served on the staff and as military observers in Palestine.

II

The Security Council,

HAVING NOTED with satisfaction the several armistice agreements concluded by means of negotiations between the parties involved in the conflict in Palestine in pursuance of its resolution of 16 November 1948 (S/1080);

Expresses the hope that the Governments and authorities concerned, having undertaken by means of the negotiations now being conducted by the Palestine Conciliation Commission, to fulfill the request of the General Assembly

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In its resolution of 11 December 1948 to extend the scope of the armistice negotiations and to seek agreement by negotiations conducted either with the Conciliation Commission or directly, will at an early date achieve agreement on the final settlement of all questions outstanding between them;

Finds that the armistice agreements constitute an important step toward the establishment of permanent peace in Palestine and considers that these agreements supersede the truce provided for in the resolutions of the Security Council of 29 May and 15 July 1948;

Reaffirms, pending the final peace settlement, the order contained in its resolution of 15 July 1948 to the Governments and authorities concerned, pursuant to Article 40 of the Charter of the United Nations, to observe an unconditional cease-fire and, bearing in mind that the several armistice agreements include firm pledges against any further acts of hostility between the parties and also provide for their supervision by the parties themselves, relies upon the parties to ensure the continued application and observance of these agreements;

Decides that all functions assigned to the United Nations

Mediator on Palestine having been discharged, the Acting Mediator is relieved of any further responsibility under Security Council resolutions;

Notes that the armistice agreements provide that the execution of those agreements shall be supervised by mixed armistice commissions whose Chairman in each case shall be the United Nations Chief of Staff of the Truce Supervision Organization or a senior officer from the observer personnel of that organization designated by him following consultation with the parties to the agreements;

Requests the Secretary-General to arrange for the continued service of such of the personnel of the present Truce Supervision Organization as may be required in observing and maintaining the cease-fire, and as may be necessary in assisting the parties to the armistice agreements in the supervision of the application and observance of the terms of those agreements, with particular regard to the desires of the parties as expressed in the relevant articles of the agreements;

Requests the Chief of Staff mentioned above to report to the Security Council on the observance of the cease-fire in Palestine in accordance with the terms of this resolution; and to keep the Palestine Conciliation Commission informed of matters affecting the Commission's work under the General Assembly resolution of 11 December 1948.

Provisional Agenda of the Fourth Regular Session of the General Assembly

U. N. doc. A/932
Dated July 22, 1949

To convene at the General Assembly Hall, Flushing Meadow, New York on Tuesday, 20 September 1949 at 11.00 a. m.

1. Opening of the session by the Chairman of the delegation of Australia.
2. Appointment of a Credentials Committee.
3. Election of the President.
4. Constitution of the Main Committees and election of officers.
5. Election of Vice-Presidents.
6. Notification by the Secretary-General under Article 12, paragraph 2, of the Charter.
7. Adoption of the agenda.
8. Opening of the general debate.
9. Report of the Secretary-General on the work of the Organization.
10. Report of the Security Council.
11. Report of the Economic and Social Council.
12. Report of the Trusteeship Council.
13. Election of three non-permanent members of the Security Council.

14. Election of six members of the Economic and Social Council.
15. Election of two members of the Trusteeship Council.
16. Installation of the Assistant Secretary-General in charge of Security Council Affairs.
17. Admission of new Members: reports of the Security Council.
18. Palestine:
 - (a) Proposals for a permanent international regime for the Jerusalem area: report of the United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine (Resolution 194 (III) of 11 December 1948).
 - (b) Protection of the Holy Places: report of the United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine (Resolution 194 (III) of 11 December 1948).
 - (c) Assistance to Palestine refugees: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 212 (III) of 19 November 1948).
19. Question of the disposal of the former Italian colonies (Resolution 287 (III) of 18 May 1949).

20. Question of Indonesia (Resolution 274 (III) of 11 May 1949).
21. Threats to the political independence and territorial integrity of Greece: report of the United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans (Resolution 193 (III) of 27 November 1948).
22. The problem of the independence of Korea: report of the United Nations Commission on Korea (Resolution 195 (III) of 12 December 1948).
23. International control of atomic energy: report of the permanent members of the Atomic Energy Commission (Resolution 191 (III) of 4 November 1948).
24. Prohibition of the atomic weapon and reduction by one-third of the armaments and armed forces of the permanent members of the Security Council: report of the Security Council (Resolution 192 (III) of 19 November 1948).
25. Report of the Interim Committee of the General Assembly (Resolution 196 (III) of 3 December 1948).
 - (a) Promotion of international co-operation in the political field.
 - (b) Constitution, duration and terms of reference of the Interim Committee.
26. United Nations Field Service: report of the Special Committee (Resolution 270 (III) of 29 April 1949).
27. Observance in Bulgaria and Hungary of human rights and fundamental freedoms (Resolution 272 (III) of 30 April 1949).
28. Economic development of under-developed countries: report of the Economic and Social Council (Resolution 198 (III) of 4 December 1948).
29. Draft Convention on Freedom of Information (Resolution 277 (III) of 13 May 1949).
30. Discriminations practised by certain States against immigrating labour and, in particular, against labour recruited from the ranks of refugees (Resolution 282 (III) of 16 May 1949).
31. United Nations Appeal for Children: report of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (Resolution 215 (III) of 8 December 1948).
32. International Bill of Human Rights. Right of petition (Resolution 217 (III) B of 10 December 1948).
33. Action taken in pursuance of the agreements between the United Nations and the specialized agencies: report of the Economic and Social Council (Resolution 50 (I) of 14 December 1946).
34. Administrative unions affecting Trust Territories: report of the Trusteeship Council (Resolution 224 (III) of 18 November 1948).
35. Question of South West Africa: report of the Trusteeship Council (Resolution 227 (III) of 26 November 1948).
36. Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories:
 - (a) Summary and analysis of information transmitted under Article 73 e of the Charter: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 218 (III) of 3 November 1948).
 - (b) Information transmitted under Article 73 of the Charter: report of the Special Committee (Resolution 219 (III) of 3 November 1948).
37. Headquarters of the United Nations: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 242 (III) of 18 November 1948).
38. Financial report and accounts of the United Nations for the financial year ended 31 December 1948, and report of the Board of Auditors.
39. Supplementary estimates for the financial year 1949; report of the Secretary-General.
40. Budget estimates for the financial year 1950.
 - (a) Budget estimates prepared by the Secretary-General.
 - (b) Reports of the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions.
41. Unforeseen and extraordinary expenses for 1949 and advances from the Working Capital Fund: report of the Secretary-General.
42. Scale of assessments for the apportionment of the expenses of the United Nations: report of the Committee on Contributions (Resolution 238 (III) of 18 November 1948).
43. United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund: Financial report and accounts for the financial year ended 31 December 1948, and report of the Board of Auditors.
44. Organization of a United Nations postal administration: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 232 (III) of 8 October 1948).
45. Establishment of an Administrative Tribunal: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 13 (I) IV, paragraph 11, of 13 February 1946).
46. Appointments to fill vacancies in the membership of subsidiary bodies of the General Assembly:
 - (a) Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions.
 - (b) Committee on Contributions.
 - (c) Board of Auditors.
 - (d) United Nations Staff Pension Committee.
 - (e) Investments Committee: confirmation of the appointment made by the Secretary-General.

47. United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund: annual report of the United Nations Staff Pension Committee.
48. Expenses of the Permanent Central Opium Board. Assessment of non-members of the United Nations, signatories of the Convention of 19 February 1925 relating to narcotic drugs: item proposed by the Economic and Social Council.
49. Methods and procedures of the General Assembly: report of the Special Committee (Resolution 271 (III) of 29 April 1949).
50. Report of the International Law Commission.
 - (a) Part I: General (Resolutions 174 (II), 177 (II) of 21 November 1947 and 260 (III) B of 9 December 1948).
 - (b) Part II: Draft Declaration on the Rights and Duties of States (Resolution 178 (II) of 21 November 1947).
51. Permanent Missions to the United Nations: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 257 (III) of 3 December 1948).
52. Reparation for injuries incurred in the service of the United Nations: advisory opinion of the International Court of Justice and report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 258 (III) of 3 December 1948).
53. Draft rules for the calling of international conferences: report of the Economic and Social Council (Resolution 173 (II) of 17 November 1947).
54. Registration and publication of treaties and international agreements: report of the Secretary-General.
55. Privileges and immunities of the United Nations: report of the Secretary-General.
56. Approval of a supplementary agreement with the Universal Postal Union concerning the use of the United Nations *laissez-passer*: report of the Secretary-General.
57. Designation of non-member States to which a certified copy of the revised General Act for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes shall be communicated by the Secretary-General for the purpose of accession to this Act: report of the Secretary-General (Resolution 268 (III) A of 28 April 1949).
58. Invitations to be addressed to non-member States to become parties to the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide: report of the Secretary-General (Article XI of the Convention, Resolution 260 (III) of 9 December 1948).
59. Application of Liechtenstein to become a party to the Statute of the International Court of Justice: report of the Security Council.
60. Plan for the reform of the calendar: item proposed by Panama.

Two Committees Established by U.N.

On April 29, 1949, the following Committees were established: Special Committee on Methods and Procedures of the General Assembly, with Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Czechoslovakia, Egypt, France, India, Iran, Mexico, Sweden, U.S.S.R., United Kingdom, United States, and Uruguay as members; and Special Committee on United Nations Guard with Australia, Brazil, China, Colombia, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Haiti, Pakistan, Poland, Sweden, U.S.S.R., United Kingdom, and the United States as members. For previous bodies and posts established during the third session, Part I, see BULLETIN of January 16, 1949, page 72.

United Nations Documents: A Selected Bibliography¹

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Report Dated 22 April 1949 from the United Nations Commission for Indonesia Concerning the Military Situation in Indonesia. S/1314, April 29, 1949. 6 pp. mimeo.

Letter Dated 6 May 1949 from the Representatives of the United Kingdom and the United States to the President of the Security Council transmitting a Report of the Administration of the British/United States Zone of the Free Territory of Trieste, 1 January to 31 March 1949. S/1318, May 6, 1949. 68 pp. mimeo.

Report Dated 9 May 1949 from the United Nations Commission for Indonesia to the President of the Security Council Concerning Discussions Between the Parties Pursuant to the Council's Directive of 23 March 1949. S/1320, May 9, 1949. 3 pp. mimeo.

Letter dated 26 November 1948, from the Acting Mediator addressed to the Secretary-General transmitting copies of communications to the Provisional Government of Israel and to the Governments of Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Transjordan and Yemen. S/1090, November 29, 1948. 6 pp. mimeo.

Economic and Social Council

Measures To Increase Availability of Food. Report of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations in connexion with Council res. 183 VIII. E/1339, May 19, 1949. 5 pp. mimeo.

Fifth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination to the Economic and Social Council. E/1340, May 25, 1949. 19 pp. mimeo.

United Nations Appeal for Children. Report of the Secretary-General. E/1346, May 23, 1949. 8 pp. mimeo.

Availability of DDT Insecticides for Combatting Malaria in Agricultural Areas. E/1353, May 24, 1949. 25 pp. mimeo.

¹ Printed materials may be secured in the United States from the International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y. Other materials (mimeographed or processed documents) may be consulted at certain designated libraries in the United States.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE UNITED NATIONS

[August 20-26]

UNSCCOUR

More than 500 scientists from 49 countries attending the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources, in its second week at Lake Success, divided into groups for exchange of technical papers on five classes of resources: water, land, forests, wildlife, and fuels and energy. Specialized panel discussions have concerned the need for soil surveys, methods of improving forests and proper management, and the future of mineral reserves.

The scientists heard A. L. Levorsen, a United States geology professor, state that although known oil reserves in all parts of the world were enough to last only 20 years, present estimates of the total undiscovered deposits of petroleum are approximately 500 times current annual consumption. Any failure to meet world demands for oil over the next hundred years, Professor Levorsen said, would certainly not be due to a lack of reserves or the failure of technology to locate them. Experience, he continued, suggests that failure to find oil is more often the result of the lack of a healthy political and economic climate. Professor Levorsen's optimistic estimate of oil reserves was criticized by two other United States mineral experts who considered his statement overoptimistic.

At a panel discussion on minerals, an expert from the United States Bureau of Mines said that while there is no impending shortage of vital minerals in the world, the outlook for improvement of known reserves is "not too favorable."

In a meeting devoted to forest resources, one specialist expressed concern that the world is turning its eyes to the enormous timber reserves in Latin America and stressed the need to avoid destroying these forests by overexploitation. A representative of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization told him that that organization is concerned over the problem and has it under study.

Hugh H. Bennett, Chief of the United States Soil Conservation Service, declared that because of lack of conservation there are left only about 4 billion acres of immediately arable land in the world. This is not nearly enough to produce food for a growing world population, he said, unless modern conservation methods are applied more widely.

Conference on Protection of Nature

More than 100 delegates from 18 countries and 6 international organizations are attending the first International Technical Conference on the Protection of Nature, which opened at Lake Success on August 22. This conference, sponsored by the UNESCO in collaboration with the International Union for the Protection of Nature, will study problems mainly concerned with the effects of "planned enterprises" on the balance of nature and the possible consequences on nature's equilibrium of the generalized use of antiparasitic products, such as DDT.

Kashmir

The United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan called off the proposed joint meetings of representatives of India and Pakistan on the implementation of a truce agreement. After the joint meetings in Karachi between military representatives of India and Pakistan resulted in the establishment of a cease-fire line for the State of Jammu and Kashmir, the Commission had hoped that a joint meeting at the ministerial level for the implementation of a truce agreement might bring worthwhile results. However, replies from the governments to the invitation of the Commission indicated that conflicting views held by the two governments in the negotiations of the past few months remained unaltered, and agreement even on the agenda could not be reached. The Commission, as sponsor of the proposed conference, therefore, felt that it would not be propitious nor would it better the cause to convene the meetings under these circumstances.

AEC Resolution

U.N. doc. AEC/42
Adopted July 29, 1949

The Atomic Energy Commission
HAS CONSIDERED the proposal of the representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (AEC/37) that the Atomic Energy Commission begin immediately to prepare a draft convention for the prohibition of atomic weapons and a draft convention for the control of atomic energy pro-

ceeding from the principle that both conventions must be concluded and put into effect simultaneously;

HAS NOTED the statement of the representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at the forty-fifth meeting of the Working Committee on Wednesday, 1 June 1949, that the proposals submitted by the representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on atomic energy in June 1946 and June 1947 should be taken as a basis for the elaboration of these draft conventions;

RECALLS that these same proposals, particularly those of 11 June 1947, have already been analysed in detail and rejected in April 1948 on the grounds that "they ignore the existing technical knowledge of the problem of atomic energy control, do not provide an adequate basis for the effective international control of atomic energy and the elimination from national armaments of atomic weapons, and, therefore, do not conform to the terms of reference of the Atomic Energy Commission";

RECALLS that the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics proposal for the preparation of a draft convention for the prohibition of atomic weapons and a draft convention for the control of atomic energy to be concluded and brought into effect simultaneously was rejected by the General Assembly at the 157th plenary meeting in its third session on 4 November 1948, by 40 votes to 6, with 5 abstentions.

And recalls also that at the same time the General Assembly approved the "General Findings" (Part II C) and "Recommendations" (Part III) of the first report and the specific proposals of Part II of the second report of the Commission, as constituting the necessary basis for establishing an effective system of international control of atomic energy to ensure its use only for peaceful purposes and for the elimination from national armaments of atomic weapons in accordance with the terms of reference of the Atomic Energy Commission;

The Atomic Energy Commission observes that no material has been presented additional to that previously submitted to the General Assembly, the Commission or the Working Committee;

The Atomic Energy Commission therefore concludes that no useful purpose can be served by further discussions in the Atomic Energy Commission of those proposals which have already been considered and rejected by the appropriate organs of the United Nations. The Atomic Energy Commission reports to the Security Council and the General Assembly accordingly.

ESOSOC Resolution on ICEF

U.N. doc E/1468
Adopted July 28, 1949

The Economic and Social Council,

HAVING CONSIDERED the report of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund,¹

Records its appreciation that thirty-two Governments have contributed to the Fund, many of them for a second and third time, and that, in addition, millions of individuals have contributed to the United Nations Appeal for Children in 1948 and are doing so again in 1949;

Notes the steps taken by the Fund with respect to the United Nations Appeal for Children pursuant to General Assembly resolution 215 (III);

Notes the arrangements between the Fund and the United Nations Department of Social Affairs, the World Health Organization and the Food and Agriculture Organization whereby the fund in its programme relies so far as possible on these agencies for technical assistance and advice;

Notes the decision of the Executive Board of the Fund to report to the tenth session of the Council on a study to be conducted in co-operation with the Secretary-General, the Social Commission and interested specialized agencies with a view to developing recommendations as to methods of organization and procedure within the United Nations and the specialized agencies required to ensure that the continuing needs of children may be identified and given due emphasis and attention;²

Notes the decision of the Executive Board of the Fund regarding the French Government's generous offer to establish a Children's Centre in Paris providing facilities for instruction, demonstrations and research of an international character, and expresses its gratification at the type of collaboration offered by the Executive Board of WHO for the purpose of establishing the Centre;

Recommends to the Executive Board of the Fund that it make, in the light of the action taken by the Executive Board of WHO,³ the necessary adjustments in the arrangements for the establishment and the administration of the Children's Centre in Paris, and keep the Council informed of the progress made in implementation of this project; and

Transmits the report of the Fund and this resolution to the General Assembly, drawing particular attention to the fact that further contributions are necessary to enable the Fund to carry out the programme it envisages for the fiscal year ending 30 June 1950.

¹ See U.N. doc. E/1406.

² See U.N. doc. E/1406, annex V.

³ See U.N. doc. E/1431.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND CONFERENCES

International Conference on Science Abstracting

by Verner W. Clapp

The International Conference on Science Abstracting, which met at Paris under the auspices of UNESCO during the week of June 20-25, was the latest in a series of meetings since the War to plan action for assuring that the published results of scientific research be made generally accessible to all scientists through abstracting and indexing media, for the dual purpose of providing prompt and reliable information on current developments and of supplying background information, which must be reviewed before a new project can be undertaken. Accounts of a number of the earlier meetings have previously appeared in the scientific literature, and from the total discussions a comprehensible program is beginning to emerge.

When UNESCO's Preparatory Commission called upon representatives of various professional groups in the summer of 1946 for suggestions for its future program, a principal point of unanimity in the recommendations was that something be done to keep each group up to date by means of indexes, bibliographies, and abstracts in the progress of its particular discipline. This was a large order, but its unanimity made it impossible to disregard. UNESCO has, consequently, taken the matter seriously, but because no single international organization could alone undertake the vast task of keeping the learned world informed on the details of scholarly progress, UNESCO's approach to the problem has been a cautious one—an attempt to ascertain what an international organization might achieve in this field merely as a stimulator of international collaboration.

The essential problem involved, as it affects the pure and applied natural sciences, can be simply stated. There were, according to an estimate made more than 10 years ago, some 750 thousand original articles published in these sciences each

year. So many gaps were left by the existing abstracting machinery, however, that only about a third of the total number of articles was covered by abstracting journals. At the same time the rate of duplication was so high that the abstracted articles were abstracted an average of three times each. The problem then is to secure continually better organized coverage of original scientific publication, possibly in part through the reduction of present unnecessary duplication.

The first task in its role of stimulator of international collaboration in this field came early to UNESCO. In December 1946, only a few months after its creation, UNESCO lent its auspices to a two-nation discussion of plans for medical and biological abstracting. This initial meeting led to the formation of an Interim Coordinating Committee for Medical and Biological Abstracting in which United States groups, such as the American Medical Association, Medical Library Association, and *Biological Abstracts* were represented, and which, in a meeting at Paris on June 1-4 of this year, dropped the word Interim from its name (1, 2, 3).¹

The recent conference on science abstracting generalized on the pattern which had been developed for medicine and biology. Plans for this discussion have been under way since 1947 when the General Conference of UNESCO gave instructions for the calling of a meeting of experts as early as possible in the next year in order to make plans for an international conference (4). The experts' meeting took place in April 1948, under the chairmanship of Dr. Alexander King of the Office of the Lord President of the Council, London, with Mrs. Eileen R. Cunningham of the

¹Italic numbers in parentheses refer to literature citations, *post*, p. 294.

Medical Library Association and Dr. Evan J. Crane of *Chemical Abstracts* attending from the United States. This group drew up an agenda for the international conference, which was again endorsed by the General Conference of UNESCO at Beirut in November-December 1948, in the following resolution:

[The Director General (of UNESCO) is instructed]: To aid the development of the indexing, abstracting and reviewing of scientific literature by promoting international collaboration, coordination and organization in these fields, and to that end to convene an International Conference on Scientific Abstracting (5).

Invitations to the international conference were sent out early this year, going not only to governments but also to international scientific organizations, abstracting services, and other interested organizations. In preparation for the conference UNESCO circulated an excellent 92-page working paper, prepared by Dr. Thérèse Grivet, on the *Present State of Science Abstracting Services and Possible Improvements* (6), and contracted with the International Federation for Documentation (FID) of The Hague for the preparation of a listing of current abstracting and indexing services, and of a study of their principal features (7, 8).

Meanwhile, interest in this subject has been taking organized form elsewhere. Although the United States is at present apparently the greatest producer of indexes and abstracts (the FID study shows over 192 thousand abstracts and 270 thousand indexed titles published here annually in services of 4 thousand or more items alone), organized interest in the coordination and improvement of these media for the benefit of the ultimate consumer was left before the War almost entirely to the librarians. Even the Joint Committee on Abstracting and Indexing in the Major Fields of Research, which represented ten professional associations and which made useful studies and suggestions from 1937 to 1945, was unable to enlist the active support of the scientific groups or to improve the situation (9). After the War, however, a combination of circumstances has forced a much wider consideration of the problem of bibliographic control of the published research records: the vastly increased amount of research, and of reports of research as well as the necessity for catching up on the wartime backlog, increasing costs of publication, the cessation of many prewar abstracting journals, and especially the great increase in government-sponsored research accompanied by the emergence of the mimeographed report. Symptomatic of this consideration, for example, is the recent establishment, within the Research and Development Board of the National Military Establishment, of a Special Committee on Technical Information, of which Dr. Detlov W. Bronk is chairman, and which contains other civilian as well as military representation. This com-

mittee is instructed to interest itself in "methods for the effective reporting, recording, reproducing, organization and dissemination of information relating to research and development as it affects the National Military Establishment," but the Board has stated that "it is taking the lead in this matter simply to fill an existing gap in the research and development plan of the nation and . . . it has no intention of encroaching upon the prerogatives of the civilian interests in this field when an adequate organization can be found to sponsor this activity" (10).

In Great Britain interest in the matter has also crystallized since the War, producing an effective and representative working organization. The Royal Society, responding to recommendations of two previous congresses, called in June-July 1948 an Empire-wide Conference on Scientific Information in which observers from the United States were permitted to participate (11, 12). This Conference has given rise to a continuing body, the Royal Society's Information Services Committee (13) which has already made some headway in treatment of the problems: it has brought together the representatives of British abstracting services in a subcommittee and has issued a directory of such services; it has issued an instruction regarding the preparation of "synopses" (abstracts published simultaneously with articles, under the responsibility of journal editors); it has promulgated a declaration of fair dealing in regard to copying from scientific periodicals; and it is now working on standards for bibliographic citation.

The foregoing were among the principal preliminaries to the Paris conference. In addition, following the designation of the United States delegation,² a conference was called at the National Academy of Sciences on May 25, 1949, under the joint sponsorship of the National Research Council, the Research and Development Board, and the Department of State. In this Conference were represented a number of abstracting services, scientific journals, and users or representatives of the users of abstracts. This meeting reviewed the agenda for the Paris conference, disapproved the suggestion made in Dr. Grivet's working paper for a new international nongovernmental organization to coordinate science abstracting, and went on record as favoring more fully coordinated interest and effort within the United States in matters relating to the bibliography of science.

² The U.S. delegation consisted of Dr. E. J. Crane (*Chemical Abstracts*), Dr. J. Murray Luck (*Annual Reviews, Inc.*) and Verner W. Clapp (*Library of Congress*), chairman; with Mrs. Eileen R. Cunningham (Vanderbilt University), Dr. John E. Flynn (*Biological Abstracts*) and Dr. Eugene W. Scott (Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific Research and Development) as advisers. Norman T. Ball (Research and Development Board), Lawrence Bucans, John E. Burchard (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), Dr. Dwight E. Gray (American Institute of Physics), Dr. Sanford V. Larkey (Johns Hopkins University, but representing the Army Medical Library), and R. H. Phelps (Engineering Societies Library) served as consultants.

These views were to a considerable degree sustained at the Paris conference itself, at which were assembled official delegations from 26 governments, 6 United Nations organizations, 35 international scientific organizations, in addition to observers from approximately 40 other organizations. The Conference had before it in draft a number of recommendations stemming from the working paper, and its work consisted for the most part in finding a common meeting ground of international and interprofessional opinion with respect to these recommendations. Thus, though the Conference promulgated no new and startling truths, its findings, expressed in some 30 substantive recommendations, may be considered the high point of agreement to date upon the state of the problem and on next steps to be taken in such matters as cooperation among abstracting services, the preparation and use of "synopses", standardization of terminology and nomenclature, the issuance of listings of abstracting services, and of periodicals abstracted, and coordination at the international level with respect to abstracting in chemistry, physics, and agriculture (14).

More promising, perhaps, than the specific recommendations of the Conference is the fact that the importance and the problems of science abstracting are now felt by a much wider circle than previously, and that a form of organization has been devised to channel this interest and responsibility. The Conference rejected the proposal for a new international nongovernmental office to coordinate science abstracting, on the supposition that to establish such an office would be merely to dodge responsibility at the national level and unnecessarily to multiply international organizations. Instead, the Conference recommended that UNESCO stimulate the creation of national (or regional) committees on science abstracting whose purpose would be to assure that the scientific publications of their regions are adequately listed and abstracted, that their regions are adequately supplied with abstracts and that the recommendations of the Conference are considered and, if possible, implemented. Subject committees at an international level might also be set up in cooperation with the national or regional committees through the international scientific unions or other appropriate international bodies. Since all these committees would act directly within their spheres of responsibility, UNESCO's role would continue to be one merely of stimulation and facilitation or that of a "clearing house."

The United States may therefore expect an invitation from UNESCO in the near future to establish such a national committee. Such an invitation would tie in closely with present plans of the National Research Council to develop interest not only in abstracting but also in the larger problem of scientific communication.

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U. S. Delegation International Meeting on Herring and Allied Species

The Department of State announced on August 16 the United States delegation to the International Meeting on Herring and Allied Species to be convened at The Hague August 29, 1949, by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). The delegation is as follows:

Chairman

A. W. Anderson, Chief, Branch of Commercial Fisheries, Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of the Interior

Delegates

Maurice Wallar, Acting Chief, Dairy, Poultry, Fish, Livestock and Meat Section, Food Branch, Office of International Trade, Department of Commerce
Charles Carry, Director, Fishery Products Division, National Canners Association

Advisers

R. W. Tyson, Chief, Special Commodities Branch, Food and Agriculture Division, Economic Cooperation Administration
R. H. Fiedler, Fisheries Specialist, Food and Agriculture Division, Economic Cooperation Administration
Lloyd Steere, Counselor of Embassy for Economic Affairs, American Embassy, The Hague
Francis Linville, Division of International Resources, Department of State

The agenda for the meeting will include such subjects as production, processing, marketing and distribution, and prices. The Herring Commodity Study compiled by the FAO will also be discussed.

(Continued on page 315)

Testimony Before the House Foreign Affairs Committee on Military Assistance

STATUS OF WESTERN UNION DEVELOPMENT¹

The most significant, and the first legal move toward the European unity which so many have talked about for so long, came about a little over 1 year ago with the signing of the Brussels treaty. Under the treaty, Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom have agreed to cooperate among themselves to strengthen their economic, social, and cultural ties.

Because of the uncertain political situation in Western Europe and the fact that the continuation of a free, independent Western Europe seemed in jeopardy, there were written into the treaty important measures for collective self-defense. It was considered essential to take steps toward guaranteeing military security. Remarkable progress toward this goal has been made in 1 year.

It was recognized first that the five powers individually would be totally unable to hold off an all-out act of aggression. The central concept has been therefore to construct a unified military instrument able to offer effective resistance to any such threat.

To develop the program, The Western Union Defense Committee was established. This consists of the five Ministers of Defense, and holds the over-all responsibility of preserving the territorial and military integrity of Western Europe. To carry out the decisions of the Defense Committee, two other groups were set up, The Western Union Chiefs of Staff Committee and the Western Union Military Supply Board.

The former includes the chiefs of staff of the land, sea, and air forces, although normally each country is represented by only one chief of staff.

¹ Statement read into the record on Aug. 2, 1949, of the House Foreign Affairs Committee, and released to the press on Aug. 17, 1949. This statement is based on reports from U.S. officials in Europe.

This group is responsible for advising on every aspect of Western European defense.

The Supply Board advises the Defense Committee on all questions relating to military supplies, and consists of high ranking members from each of the five powers.

In addition, a Finance and Economic Committee was established to deal with the financial problems of these two groups.

To study the technical and tactical questions of Western European defense, the Brussels treaty governments appointed a Commanders-in-Chief Committee in 1948. The members of this committee are:

Chairman—Field Marshal Viscount Montgomery of Alamein

Commander-in-Chief—Land Forces, General D'Armes Jean de Lattre de Tassigny

Commander-in-Chief—Air Forces, Air Chief Marshal Sir James Robb

Flag Officer, Western Europe—Vice Admiral Robert Jaujard

This committee holds in its hands the responsibility for preparing the plans for Western European defense and is responsible to the Western Union Chiefs of Staff. If aggression should occur, the committee would assume command of such forces of the Western Union countries as would be put at its disposal.

In considering how Western Europe can best be defended, the primary emphasis has been on mutual aid. The five powers now have a common organization for the use of their military forces; they have made estimates as to what each member should contribute in case of war; they know approximately what equipment will be necessary, and they are using what equipment they presently have on a mutual basis. In addition, each of the Brussels treaty powers has compulsory military training to maintain adequate reserves.

Great progress has already been made in many fields of defense planning. A complete program for such defense has been drawn up, including the use of land, naval, and air forces. Already communication systems are operating among the participating nations.

To coordinate their defense plans, warships have been loaned from one Western Union country to another; jet aircraft are being provided until production can be increased in the recipient nations, military equipment which is surplus in one country has been distributed to others needing it; progress has been made in standardizing military equipment by a system of licensing; and technical and scientific knowledge in the field of military production has been pooled.

This exchange has carried over from the field of supplies into the field of personnel. Officers and men are being increasingly exchanged to attend military courses, and common training is also under consideration.

In this connection, of particular interest have been the joint air defense exercises at the end of June carried on by the British RAF with active contributions by the air arms of the Netherlands, Belgium, and France; and the more recent naval maneuvers, which carried out large-scale combined exercises. During these maneuvers, the combined fleets, together with the air forces, gave special attention to cooperating in the fields of defense of convoys against submarines and air attack, and also to joint minesweeping.

It is clear that the Western Union countries realize that adequate land, sea, and air forces be maintained. Under article four of the Brussels treaty, they have agreed to give to any member which is attacked all military and other aid and assistance in their power. Under the Atlantic pact, they have given further emphasis to this responsibility by agreeing to "continuous and effective self-help" and to expand their "capacity to resist armed attack."

In all these joint operations and in planning for Western European defense the major handicap is lack of equipment. For instance, to allow for the necessary expansion of the military structure in case of war, it is necessary to equip not only the peacetime forces but also to build up an adequate reserve of military supplies in case of emergency. This has not been possible thus far.

They are tremendously hindered by the fact that they do not have adequate supplies or the capacity to produce such supplies. Occupation by the enemy and/or the effect of 5 years of war on the normal process of maintaining, expanding, and improving their capital equipment played havoc with production. Further, a thoroughly agreed-on principle in the field of the rearmament of Western Europe is that economic recovery takes

precedence over military production.

They are therefore unable to restore their military production to the necessary level, although they now possess the framework of a military instrument able to absorb such production. They are, moreover, faced with the fact that the lack of capital equipment is hindering production increase, and the fact that their inadequate production is hindering the supply of capital equipment.

Much emphasis is being laid on the importance of standardizing arms and equipment to aid joint operations. Toward the end of the war many of the Western European nations were provided with American equipment with which they have made a start toward rebuilding their military forces. This in itself has meant a considerable standardization between the Western Union countries. With limited economic resources, however, replacement of existing equipment has been largely impossible by new production. Standardization therefore can only be thought of in long-range terms. Along these lines, much work has been done, and much progress been made in the fields of research and development.

Joint operations are being extended into every phase of military planning. The Western Union countries have agreed on common operational plans and codes in the field of tactics, including the common use of maps and charts; tactical and technical manuals are being exchanged on a mutual basis; and the mutual solving of operational problems has extended beyond into the field of logistics. These joint efforts extend to details such as providing and issuing trilingual glossaries and the translation of manuals into three languages.

It is now obvious that Western Union is no longer a mere plan on paper. It is grown into an operating unit, which has made real progress during its 1 year of existence. Its members have made and are making great sacrifices to a common cause. The mere fact of Western Union has had a great effect on the will of the peoples to resist aggression. Cooperation among the five powers is increasing steadily.

Despite tremendous strides made in the field of economic production, however, the chief problem remains that of supply. It seems impossible that this problem can be solved without United States military assistance.

AID TO ITALY, FRANCE, AND NORWAY

*Statement by James Clement Dunn, American Ambassador to Italy*¹

At the close of the war Italy was in dire economic and political distress. There was not enough bread to feed Italy's 46 million people. Chaos and disorganization were rampant. The

¹ Made on Aug. 5, 1949, and released to the press on the same date.

forces working for Communism counted on hunger and unemployment to secure for them a mandate from the people. They participated in Italy's government and confidently expected to take over after the departure of the Allied troops. Many observers fully believed that Italy might just as well be written off as a certain prey for the forces of aggressive totalitarianism and that the Italian people's new-won democratic freedom was to be of short duration.

You all know today how much in a few years this grave situation has changed for the better. Many of you personally have seen and praised the successful efforts of the hard-working Italian people to rehabilitate their country. You all know that only with their courageous efforts and the help which has been provided to Italy by the United States, first in the form of relief and rehabilitation and subsequently under the European Recovery Program, could this tremendous change have been possible. The point I should like particularly to put before you now is that the task is not yet finished in Italy. The culmination of our policy for a democratic, free, and independent Italy, freely associated with the other democracies in the preservation of their liberty, is the assistance we can give her to maintain her security.

In their postwar development the Italian people have been steadily confronted with two fears of a fundamental character. If Italy is to survive as a democracy, those two fears must be conquered. The first was a sense of insecurity based upon the ruthless character and aggressive tactics of totalitarian elements within Italy itself who have widely proclaimed their willingness to turn to force if their aims could not be achieved by democratic process. This fear has now to a great extent been lessened: first, by the impact of United States aid on the Italian economy; second, by the elections in April of last year of a strongly pro-democratic government; and, third, by the government's ability to maintain public order in Italy despite the threats of violence and efforts of intimidation on the part of totalitarians. I can safely say to you that with a stable government which is afforded the means to protect the freedom of democracy in Italy, this first fear will be permanently licked.

The second fundamental fear which has plagued the Italian people has been their insecurity arising from Italy's vulnerable and exposed international position. She is strategically important because her geographic position in the Mediterranean makes her a land bridge to North Africa and, with Sicily, a gate to the central Mediterranean. She has a valuable and vulnerable northern industrial area and great reserves of skilled technical labor. The strategic consequences to the United States, which would result from an occupation of the Italian peninsula by an

aggressor are unquestionably of importance, as is the desirability of supporting the will of the Italians to defend their country and their democracy in cooperation with the other democratic nations of Europe.

This sense of international insecurity has been heightened by the vision of aggressive policy in the east with its consequences for the satellite nations, and also by the provisions of the Italian peace treaty which have placed Italy's frontier on terrain not easily defensible, have forbidden fortification of a defense zone behind this weakened frontier and have drastically reduced her armed forces.

The totalitarian elements in Italy had hoped that the Italian people, overcome by fear, would supinely bow to the aggressive menace of the east. The North Atlantic pact has delivered a most telling blow against this fear and against those who have argued that Italy should not risk association with the other democracies in protecting themselves against aggression. The fact of Italy's being in the Atlantic pact and that Italy will give and receive mutual assistance with other associated nations for the strengthening of her defenses will result in dissipation of this second fear. It has and will continue to strengthen the forces of Italy working for democracy.

In mentioning mutual assistance among the signatory nations of the Atlantic pact, I should like to stress the economic and social situation peculiar to Italy among the Atlantic Pact signatories. Italy has a working population beyond the ability of present Italian industry and agriculture to absorb. This population with its will to work can profitably help the other members of the pact. In addition to this there is, in certain fields, an industrial capacity in Italy in excess of present requirements. In a relatively short time it should be possible, with a reasonable amount of outside aid, to develop a program of manufacture and export of subsidiary equipment permitted by the peace treaty.

The Military Assistance Program now before you for consideration is of crucial importance insofar as Italy is concerned. The Italian people are willing and eager to shoulder their proper responsibilities and risks in defense of democratic civilization, and they are determined to preserve their independence and individual liberty. This frame of mind has been made possible, to a great extent, by the policy of the United States in making every effort to assist Italy in overcoming those forces which have sought to bring disintegration and totalitarianism to the Italian people. That policy has borne fruition in Italy's decision to enter the North Atlantic pact in spite of the risks involved. It must be kept in mind that the peace treaty limits the military forces which Italy is permitted to acquire for her security, but even those minimum forces are at present considerably below strength in quality and quantity of certain critical items of equipment. Many of these items

can only be supplied with dollar assistance from this country. If Italy is assisted in bringing her forces up to treaty strength, her valuable industrial resources and geographical location will no longer be so vulnerable to easy aggression. With renewed confidence in her future as a part of the democratic world, the magnificent energies of her people can make a valuable contribution to the freedom, security, and prosperity of the United States and the Western European community.

*Statement by James Bruce,
American Ambassador to France*²

In contemplating the advisability of extending American military assistance to France, I should suppose that the members of Congress would be primarily interested in two considerations: one, is such aid necessary; and, second, if granted, is it likely to be effectively used?

Necessity for Aid

I shall not attempt, in this presentation, to deal with some of the broader aspects of the European security problem, which will be covered in detail by other testimony. I would, however, like to point out that the measure of cooperation in political, economic, and defense matters which has been achieved by the free nations of Europe in the last 12 months is little short of startling. Considering the traditional established separatist tendencies of these partners, it is not inaccurate to say that more progress toward a unification of Western Europe has taken place in the past year than had been dreamed of in preceding centuries.

The initial drive imparted by the Marshall Plan has spread in several directions, so that today we witness the operations of the Brussels treaty, linking five powers together, with its defense committee evolving plans for concerted action as well as the proceedings of a Council of Europe which through a consultative assembly will provide the first European forum for discussion of matters of joint concern.

In turning our attention to the necessity of military aid to France, we must frankly appraise the present effectiveness of the French defense establishment. It will be freely admitted by impartial observers, including realistic patriots in France, that this establishment is not now capable of even a delaying action of consequence against a well-equipped and aggressive enemy intent on conquest. In spite of the expenditure by the French Government of more than 30 percent of the ordinary budgetary revenues on the maintenance of army, navy, and air forces, what was once deemed the

finest army in Europe is no longer in any condition to counter the determined onslaught of a large and thoroughly modernized hostile force.

The naval and air elements have always in France been subordinate in importance to the ground forces, and their capabilities today are not such as to justify optimistic hopes.

The truth is that in order to be a potent military factor in the event of the outbreak of war directed against Western Europe within the next few years, France must have modern military equipment.

This can only happen if assistance is provided by the United States. Short of such assistance, the resources of France are inadequate both in quantity and quality for her to play an effective military role.

In addition to the material shortcomings of the French defense system, a grave and important psychological consideration is involved. The convalescence of this country has been greatly hampered and retarded by the paralyzing fear of another war, and of the immediate consequence to be expected in the event of such a conflict.

The French people cannot forget that they live only a few hundred miles from the poised armies of a nation whose government has openly proclaimed its intention of world dominion and which disposes of one of the most powerful armies of modern times. They cannot forget that the outbreak of every recent continental war has resulted rapidly in the invasion of France. They know that the enemy occupation of 1940-44 was more complete and more ruthless than that of 1914-18; they expect that another invasion and occupation would be even more ruthless, and that the attendant destruction would probably spell the end of the French nation and of the French people. They also realize that their present armed forces could not defend France against an external attack, and that invasion in the existing circumstances would be almost certain of success.

Liberation in due course might indeed come, but as one of their leading statesmen lately remarked it might well prove to be the liberation of a corpse.

Why, it may be asked, do not the assurances implicit in the Atlantic pact suffice to allay French fears? The French are apprehensive that any aid so forthcoming might prove to be too little and too late.

They will only gain a sense of security if, in addition to the assurances contained in the Atlantic pact, France disposes of a military establishment sufficiently strong to discourage aggression, and to withstand an initial assault should it come. Rightly or wrongly they estimate that only the strength which the Military Assistance Program can provide can guarantee that the pact, if article 5 had to be implemented, could be implemented in time to save France from being overrun.

A corollary question is more delicate, more complicated, but perhaps not difficult to answer. Why should the French doubt American inten-

² Made on Aug. 5, 1949, and released to the press on the same date.

tions to come immediately to their rescue, if the Atlantic pact were ratified even though the Military Assistance Program failed of passage? The answer is that the record of history in the last 30 years, as seen through French eyes, shows that assurances and intentions have not been sufficient to prevent the successful invasion and destruction of France.

Aid given by this program to France would be the most convincing form of reassurance of our determination to defend the civilization of the west. It would show, also, that we have confidence in our allies, that we are ready, even before the pact can be implemented, to provide them with weapons and equipment which we might have kept for ourselves, and that practical measures for the defense of French soil from the beginning of hostilities are an essential part of our military plans. The French are not satisfied by the idea of a stand in the Pyrenees after their country has been devastated. They are not satisfied by the idea that enemy cities will be obliterated by atomic bombs or that their own cities will be liberated after they have been reduced to piles of ruins. French confidence in the future depends on a reasonable expectation of national security.

Confidence in the future will mean that the French Government and people will cooperate more effectively and industriously in the rebuilding of the national economy. A sense of insecurity discourages investment, encourages the flight of capital, and turns men's minds away from the great tasks of international cooperation which lie before us all. Conversely, a sense of confidence favors the achievement of reconstruction and of the creation of wealth and commerce of a national and international plane, which it is one of the objectives of our foreign policy to promote.

Effective Use of Proposed Aid

If granted, is this aid likely to be effectively used? Obviously, only a prophet can answer this correctly. In attempting to do so we must again face facts frankly. There has been much talk about how the French did not fight ardently in the last war, and will never fight again. Those who indulge in such talk speak largely from prejudice or from ignorance.

Over a period of several hundred years the French have always valiantly defended their soil. True, they were overrun in World War II by the fierce onslaught of the German armies, but it should be remembered that reckoned in the most conservative terms the losses of France in the war were 154 thousand men killed in combat; over a million were isolated as prisoners of war and 800 thousand were deported to Germany, of whom 225 thousand were killed or died there. 30 thousand men and women were killed or tortured to

death for patriotic resistance, and 65 thousand civilians died in air raids or in combat.

As you know the United States provided considerable quantities of United States equipment to those French forces which were organized after the fall of France. These units contributed immeasurably to the Allied victory. Their performance in Italy was outstanding and they played an important role in the invasion of Southern France, the advance across the Rhine and the march into Germany.

This is not a negligible outpouring of blood judged by any standard, and for sheer loss of life these figures more than bear comparison with our own losses in the last war in proportion to population.

As to whether the French will ever fight again, one can only judge the future by the past. They are as a people vibrant with love of country. They are industrious, courageous, tenacious. That they would again fight effectively if not well armed and if the outlook seemed hopeless is perhaps too much to expect but I believe it unquestionable that if properly armed, and with full assurance of our immediate retaliation and backing against any attacker, they will fight as they always have in their history with the enthusiasm, and self-sacrifice that inspire those who defend their freedoms.

They need comparatively little to enable them, together with the full use of their own resources, to begin building up once more armed forces that would serve as a bulwark against invasion. Our experience in two wars of entering upon the scene of conflict after the invader has consolidated his position is one that has proved highly costly to us in lives and treasure. The method envisaged by the Military Assistance Program of aiding our friends at the earliest possible time to defend themselves in order that we should thereby defend ourselves too seems as financially expedient as it is strategically wise.

*Statement by Charles Ulrich Bay, American Ambassador to Norway**

I shall endeavor to point out the importance of this program to Norway, a small but courageous nation, which has determined to stand with the Western Democracies in a common front against potential aggression.

First, I should like to give the Committee an outline of the record of Norway's own preparation to resist aggression and, against this background, to outline both the need for assistance and the consequences of failure to receive it. I want to tell the Committee of the brave and conscientious efforts of this small nation to defend its territorial

* Made on Aug. 5, 1949, and released to the press on the same date.

and political integrity, a nation which is willing, and in my opinion will, contribute directly to the security of the United States.

Section 1. Norway's Postwar Preparations to Resist Aggression

When the Norwegian Government in exile returned to a prostrate Norway in 1945, the economic problems of reconstruction were tremendous. The Norwegian Government and people welcomed Secretary Marshall's speech of June 1947 and have given the ERP their wholehearted support. They regard the program as the most practical step in the rehabilitation of the European economy. I know of no country that has responded more readily nor more fully in cooperating with the United States and its European neighbors in sincere efforts to assure the success of the program. Norway understands the significance of the joint efforts to restore European economy through the revival of all national economies. The Norwegians agree with the American view that full employment and maximum production tend to eliminate one of the major sources of Communist agitation.

As a principal plank in the program to establish a healthy domestic economy, the Norwegian Government, soon after liberation, embarked on long-range plans for rebuilding the nation's Merchant Marine. This effort resulted in a most austere life for the average citizen. Despite hardships with which the people have had to contend in scarcities of food, clothing and housing, the public has scarcely grumbled.

ECA funds cannot, of course, be diverted to military equipment nor to assist Norway directly in building up her defenses. Such funds are earmarked specifically for economic recovery, and their use for any other purposes would not only be contrary to the best interests of Norway but would be subject to adverse propaganda if so utilized. The Norwegians realize that economic recovery must come first. Economically, however, the failure to provide military assistance would have widespread effects since Norway would then need to seek from its own meager economic and industrial resources, to reconstruct its armed forces. An intolerable burden would be placed on people who already are among the most heavily taxed of all democracies. If adequate defenses were to be built out of its own resources alone, Norwegian economic recovery would be jeopardized, and the beneficial aspects of Marshall Plan aid would largely be limited. Its economic reconstruction would suffer, and the over-all result would be that instead of having a viable economy, Norway would fall back into the hopeless period immediately following the war.

The sudden evolution of Norway from a neu-

tral power in the opening months of World War II into an active combatant with a government in exile, transformed a nation with a long tradition of isolation and neutrality into a militant advocate of cooperation, both political and military. From April 9, 1940, to the present, Norway never failed to give evidence of determination to play a most active part in cooperating with the freedom-loving democracies in resisting aggression.

Immediately following the liberation of Norway, the government embarked on a vigorous campaign to punish war criminals, quislings, and collaborators. In liquidating the residue of Fascism, Norway took its first step in eliminating the threat of revival of a totalitarian minority organization.

Sixteen months ago the labor government of Norway urged trade unions to vote Communists out of executive boards of the several unions. There was a sustained campaign to that end throughout 1948 in all parts of the country. Today there is scarcely any union of consequence in which the Communists exercise control.

In February 1948, Norway was shaken by events in Czechoslovakia and by the Soviet offer of a mutual-assistance pact to Finland. The government immediately went on record in expressing its intention to reject any similar offer of a mutual-defense pact which might in the future be tendered to Norway by the U.S.S.R.

Shortly thereafter the Norwegian Parliament took the unprecedented step of eliminating the influence of Communist members of the Foreign Relations Committee. A new committee was established from which Communists were excluded and to which all matters relating to foreign affairs as they may affect the security of Norway were to be referred.

Later Norway met with Governments of Sweden and Denmark in an effort to explore the possibilities of establishing a Scandinavian mutual-defense pact which the Norwegians insisted must be framed to permit association with the Western powers. As you all know, Sweden insisted the members of any such pact should refrain from association with any other powers. On this division of opinion, efforts to reach agreement foundered.

From that moment Norway felt free to seek membership in the Atlantic pact. Its courage as a contiguous neighbor of U.S.S.R. in seeking adherence to the association of Atlantic democracies to resist aggression was applauded by all peoples on this side of the Iron Curtain.

Its adherence to the Atlantic pact was the greatest single step in Norway's history of resistance to aggression. Despite fears of retaliatory measures by the U.S.S.R., despite opposition by a Communist minority and left wing sympathizers in Parliament and warnings of advocates of the "Scandinavian bloc", Norwegians approved the association with the Atlantic pact by an overwhelming vote both in the Labor Party Congress

and in the Storting. Not only did the pact find approval with Norwegians from the south and west, but representatives from Finnmark, the province next to Soviet territory, voted unanimously to adhere to the pact. Throughout discussion of the pact, the Norwegians indicated their confidence in the ability and willingness of the United States and the United Kingdom to supply arms so sorely needed to make the Norwegian military a potent instrument of defense.

The fact that the Norwegians came into the pact, provides conclusive evidence to me that they will defend their territory against any aggression from within or without that might threaten their freedom. Failure to give them means now to make such defense effective could be most serious for the Norwegian's Government and economy. There is no lethargy in Norway's will to put itself in the best possible position to defend its independence. We may rest assured that Norway will more than pull its own weight as a member of the Atlantic pact.

With domestic, political, and economic affairs in good order and with justified pride in their post-war record of cooperation, the Norwegians look upon the Military Assistance Program as a step urgently required now to assist them in their own efforts to build up satisfactory defense forces. In Norway there is no hesitancy to recognize the need to build up Norwegian military potential through Norwegian self-help. Despite all Communist efforts to slash the defense budget both for regular forces and the home guard, labor members of Parliament supported by all so-called Bourgeois Party members have refused to permit any paring of what they consider the largest appropriations Norway can afford. The government, Parliament, and the press have maintained an active interest in all measures designed to prepare Norway to resist aggression from within or without.

Section 2. The State of Military Preparedness in Norway

The general deficiencies confronting the Norwegian military establishment are those which can only be expected of a small nation facing the necessity of building up her armed forces from scratch in a very brief time. Remember at the end of a 5-year ruthless enemy occupation, Norway had no army, no air force, and but a minuscule navy. After the occupation of Norway, a strong renaissance of nationalism was evidenced throughout the entire population. Never again should Norway be entirely defenseless and an easy prey to an aggressor. In the future, an aggressor should and would be met with determined resistance to the extreme limits of Norway's economic and human resources.

To that end Norway set about determinedly

rebuilding its defense forces. This was doubly difficult in view of the need to repair the ravages of occupation. Considering the fact that Norway is in but its third year of reconstruction, it is only natural that great deficiencies in its armed forces should still exist and will continue to exist for years to come unless alleviated from outside sources. Norway, by her own efforts, is unable to correct these deficiencies.

There exists in Norway a heterogeneous mass of obsolete, obsolescent, as well as current material, left over from the occupation and purchased after the war's end. Weapons, on hand, can and will furnish the bulk of arms and equipment for the armed forces but to that must be added a considerable quantity of material which only the United States can furnish if Norway is to be able to use its trained manpower potential efficiently and with telling effect in a common cause. By supplying certain specialized and badly needed equipment to bring the Norwegian forces up to an acceptable modern standard, Norway can and will be a definite military asset to the United States in time of war, and her strength will serve to deter aggression in time of peace.

The need for furnishing direct dollar assistance to Norway for the purpose of building up her national military establishment is probably not very great since the Norwegian armament industry is negligible, quantitatively as well as qualitatively. Norway has however the raw materials for ferro-alloys, electric steels, and nitrate explosives which could be exchanged for finished military products from other Western European countries.

Norway has submitted a minimum list of military requirements necessary to build its national military establishment into a well-rounded, effective force within the trained manpower capabilities of the country. The list has been carefully screened by the United States and is a basically sound estimate of the bona fide needs of the Norwegian forces. This material will enable them to take to the field and render an excellent account in combat and constitute a valuable part of the Atlantic defense mechanism.

Section 3. Effect of Norway's Weakness on U.S. Security

One must not lose sight of the part Norway plays in the U.N. A charter member of the U.N., Norway was recently elected to the Security Council and is an active participant in several organs of the U.N. Needless to say, a strong self-confident and independent Norway can be regarded as a useful constructive U.N. member.

A well armed Norway will be an incalculable asset to the purposes of the Atlantic Pact. Although Norway's contributions to the Atlantic Pact may be small in terms of men and equipment, we need only to recall the threat provided in the last war to the Atlantic area by German forces in Norway to realize the value of its natural facilities. Nor must we forget the magnificent

merchant fleet Norway can place at the disposal of its colleagues. If Norway can remain strong and free and can, in the event of hostilities, assist in providing facilities for operations against the aggressor, that contribution toward mutual aid will more than offset any sacrifice required from the United States.

Norway's fighting forces are capable, with our assistance, of filling their domestic and international responsibilities. Failure to provide material aid would mean a Norway that might be incapable of (1) preserving domestic tranquillity, (2) maintaining public confidence, and (3) defending Norway against aggression. In preserving domestic tranquillity Norwegian forces must be of sufficient strength and have sufficient prestige to discourage any attempts of subversive elements to obtain control of the government through the use of force. Equipment, training, and morale must be such as to inspire public confidence in Norway's ability to give a good account

of itself if put to the test. Armed forces of this small but strategically placed nation must be adequate to assure a reasonable defense against all but an overwhelming act of aggression.

In conclusion, I should like again to recall the respect and admiration with which the free world greeted the decision of Norway to participate in the Atlantic pact despite clear indications of Soviet displeasure. This brave, rugged, and determined country, whose strategic importance in the defense of Western Europe was so dramatically demonstrated in the last war, has made unmistakably clear her resolve to make the necessary sacrifices for the freedom and dignity of her citizens. She has done this despite the exhaustion following 5 years of severe enemy occupation, despite her exposed geographical position, and despite her having exacted as great sacrifices from her people in the interest of recovery as any country in Europe. She has done this in the hope and faith that the United States will aid her in the defense problems which she is unable fully to meet with her own slender resources.

Germany's Role in World Markets

Following are adapted excerpts of an address by Mr. N. H. Collisson, ECA Deputy Special Representative for Western Germany, at the opening of the ERP Export Show in Munich July 7¹

The ERP export show in Munich where more than 100 Bavarian firms are represented, is an outstanding display of the type of export goods which roll from multifarious production lines. German goods are in demand throughout Europe and in other sections of the commercial world. But this fact should not lull one into believing that you have but to produce and the seller will appear automatically at your doorstep. The harsh economic facts of this highly competitive world would soon disillusion him who stands and waits. The world will not beat a path to the German door. Quite to the contrary. The German must get out and sell his goods in just the same manner as do the British, the French and the others who are seeking to increase their export trade.

One of the greater tasks facing German exporters and manufacturers is to bring their prices into line. It is easy to point out the problem. It is not easy to offer a solution. There are many here in Germany who blame their troubles upon the currency conversion rate of the D-Mark. But

no amount of currency adjustment can overcome some of the more fundamental economic facts which cause high prices. Production costs must be tailored to a reasonable selling price rather than the selling price adjusted to production costs. New methods of production must be studied by the German manufacturer. Experts should go to other European lands and to America to study the newest, most up-to-date production methods. Conversely, European experts and American engineers should come to Germany to help. In this exchange of technical knowledge the Marshall Plan is ready to help under its technical assistance program, which envisions the exchange of industrial knowledge among the participating countries.

Closely allied to the problem of making goods at a price for which they can be sold is the problem of diversifying trade among the nations of the world. A ready flow of goods, not merely between two nations but among all countries must be achieved if the goals of the Marshall Plan are to be reached. Inherent in this multilateralization of commerce are the unencumbered exchange of currencies, the removal of customs barriers and traffic, elimination of disparities between domestic and export prices, and a termination of monopolistic practices, whether by nations or individuals.

None of these objectives can be attained by other than a common approach to these continental ob-

¹ Reprinted from *Information Bulletin*, U.S. Military Government in Germany, July 26, 1949.

stacles by the entire community of Marshall Plan nations. Narrow, selfish, nationalistic thinking cannot meet the problem of European recovery. There must be a wholehearted common cooperative effort by all the European nations to meet their mutual problems. In that cooperative approach German representatives will be asked to represent Germany in international councils, not merely as Germans but as Europeans. Just as the German people are assuming the responsibilities of governing themselves, so must they also face the responsibility of participating in an international and European movement.

It has been claimed, and no doubt with most justice, that it is much easier for the American to think in European terms than it is for the European. But the Munich export show gives ample indication that German tradesmen and manufacturers have in the past and still do think in European terms. Many of these goods will find their way to France, Italy, Belgium, Holland and the other countries whose common effort contributes to the European Recovery Program. It is time now for not only businessmen, but for German leaders, politicians and the people themselves to think as Europeans. If this is done, and if the people of the Marshall Plan countries continue to work and to plan on a common community basis, the vision which was George C. Marshall's will have been brilliantly fulfilled.

The German Elections

A VICTORY FOR MODERATION AND COMMON SENSE

Statement by Secretary Acheson

[Released to the press August 17]

The outcome of the West German elections is viewed by this government as a victory for moderation and common sense. Some of the nationalistic and critical utterances of the candidates during the campaign can be viewed as normal manifestations of the democratic process and a release of long pent-up emotions after 16 years of dictatorship and military rule. Freedom to indulge in constructive criticism of the occupying powers, is part and parcel of the democratic process, and the Germans cannot be denied this privilege if they are to establish a truly democratic system. The Germans may well be reminded, however, that they are exercising these freedoms only because

they are privileged to live under the jurisdiction of freedom-loving nations, and that abuse of such freedoms may alienate Western sympathies while failing to serve the best interests of the German people.

The results of the balloting, however, represent a triumph for the moderate parties which are fully committed to a democratic political system. The extremist parties of the right and left together polled less than 15 percent of the total vote and will control less than 10 percent of the seats in the new assembly. The unexpectedly large participation of nearly 80 percent of the eligible voters is gratifying evidence that the Germans have taken seriously their new civic responsibilities.

This government is committed to the policy, which I believe is the only sound and democratic one, of permitting the Germans to work out their own internal problems with a minimum of outside interference. The United States has consistently refrained from intervention in German decisions concerning domestic institutions and policies except to the extent necessitated by our international commitments. We naturally welcome the results of this election insofar as they indicate a decision by the Germans to seek a solution of their economic difficulties through a system of free enterprise. But I wish to make it clear that the Germans remain entirely free, so far as we are concerned, to deal with this matter in their own fashion, providing always there is no contravention of democratic principles or of international obligations.

It is now expected that the newly elected assembly (Bundestag) will meet on September 7, and that a President of the Republic will be elected shortly thereafter. This will be followed by the appointment of a Chancellor (corresponding to Prime Minister). We anticipate that by the middle or latter part of September, the new German Government will be established, and that the High Commission for Germany will replace the existing military government organization. The Occupation Statute, as agreed upon by the Foreign Ministers on April 8, will then become operative, on a definite date yet to be established. The Federal Republic of Germany will then be free to exercise the usual prerogatives of an established government, subject only to the limited controls which are specified in the Occupation Statute and to such additional restraints as may be imposed in the general interest by such bodies as the International Authority for the Ruhr.

ANALYSIS OF THE ELECTIONS

The Department of State issued the following statement on August 15 on the analysis of the German elections of August 14:

The outcome of Sunday's election for the first Parliament of the German Federal Republic is viewed with gratification as demonstrating the

restoration of normal democratic processes in the greater part of Germany after an interruption of 16 years.

Participation in the election was higher than anticipated, amounting to 78.5 percent of all eligible voters.¹ This indicates that efforts of extremist groups to boycott the election failed. The balloting was quiet and without incident.

In spite of the strong nationalistic appeals of the campaign, the results represent on the whole a victory for the moderate groups. The Social Democratic Party and the Christian Democratic Union were, as expected, fairly evenly matched in the voting, with the latter winning a slight plurality of seats in the Bundestag.

Both major parties held their normal strength well in spite of attacks from extremist factions of right and left. Inasmuch as no party has gained a majority, the resulting government will necessarily represent a coalition of two or more groups.

One striking feature of the election was the failure of the Communist Party even to hold the small strength it had shown in former state elections. Its voting strength, which never exceeded 10 percent in any district, declined from 30 to 50 percent in various areas and amounts to less than 6 percent of the total votes cast. It will now rank only sixth in the number of seats and will be little more than a "splinter party" in the new assembly.

The "National Front" appeal of the Communists apparently made little impression upon the voters. We are pleased to note that the Berlin City Council apparently selected its eight observer-delegates to the new Parliament.

Technical Projects for Bizone of Germany

[Released to the press by ECA on August 16]

Approval of two technical assistance projects designed to aid in the recovery efforts of the Bizone of Germany were announced on August 16 by the Economic Cooperation Administration in Washington and Frankfurt.

Under the two projects, five thermal engineers and four gas-production experts will come to the United States for a month's study of American

methods in these fields. The arrival dates for the German specialists will be announced later.

The projects are the first to be requested under ECA's technical assistance program by the Government of Western Germany.

In connection with the study by the thermal engineers, ECA's special mission to the Bizone pointed out that the development of efficient thermal power stations is an essential part of the Bizone's over-all electric program. The program, as submitted to the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC), provides for the installation of 3 million KWH's additional capacity by 1952-53.

The mission, in recommending approval of the study by the gas-production experts, reported that the gas shortage in Western Germany was hampering the reactivation of industries and said the studies would be helpful in the reconstruction of the German gas industry.

The specialists will be selected by the Bizonal technical assistance projects screening committee.

The thermal engineers are interested in learning of American experience gained in the last 15 years, including information concerning (1) general design of steam-power stations, (2) application of material for boilers of high pressure and temperature, (3) operation of cyclone burners using unpulverized small coal, (4) use of superheaters, (5) cleaning of flue gas and utilization of ashes, (6) district heating-power stations, and (7) standardization of equipment.

The gas-production experts will seek information concerning (1) organization in the operation of gas works, (2) latest gas production methods, (3) operation of coal crushing and mixing plants, (4) piping network, (5) transmission over long distances and control of dust accumulations in the pipe line, (6) measuring methods, (7) uses of gas, and (8) perfecting of domestic gas appliances.

ECA expenditures for the two projects, estimated at \$2,800 for the thermal engineers and \$2,240 for the gas-production experts, will include travel and subsistence costs for the visitors while in the United States.

ECA Promotes Off-Season Travel to Europe

[Released to the press by ECA on August 10]

Plans are being made for the promotion of fall and winter travel to Europe by Americans, the Economic Cooperation Administration announced on August 10 in emphasizing that tourists' dollars play an important role in economic recovery of Western European countries.

The European Travel Commission, recognized by the Organization for European Economic Cooperation as its official advisory body on travel,

¹ Twenty-five million West German voters of the 31,000,000 eligible cast ballots giving the Christian Democrats 7,357,579 votes or 139 seats in the lower house, Social Democrats 6,932,272 votes or 131 seats, Free Democrats 2,788,653 votes or 52 seats, and Communists 1,380,443 votes or 15 seats. Not one Communist delegate was elected, and the party was forced to reply on a partial proportional representation system to salvage 15 seats in the 402-member Parliament.

believes the development of so-called off-season travel now is its No. 1 job because existing transport facilities are taxed to capacity during the summer.

The Commission's plans include:

- (1) Creation of a series of special events, such as fairs, exhibitions, conventions, conferences, and seminars to attract specialized groups of Americans to Europe.
- (2) Popularizing Europe as a winter-sports mecca.
- (3) Expansion of student, teacher, and youth-hostel travel.
- (4) Encouragement of travel on the part of foreign-born United States citizens and Americans of foreign extraction.
- (5) Lowering of transportation and hotel costs.

In the latter connection, trans-Atlantic airlines have agreed to a 30-percent off-season reduction for round trips completed within 60 days, to be effective October 1. They also have asked their respective governments to approve a 35-percent

reduction for students crossing the Atlantic and a 50-percent reduction for students flying within Europe. Lower railway fares in connection with off-season travel are being considered by the Inland Transport Committee of OEEC, and the Maritime Transport Committee of OEEC is studying possible reductions in rates during the fall and winter.

A continuing study of the American market for travel to Europe, undertaken by the travel branch of the United States Department of Commerce, which handles the travel stimulation program for ECA, reflects the need for lower prices for trans-Atlantic accommodations during the off-season.

It is indicated that many American farmer groups will visit Europe during the coming winter. A Midwest travel agent arranged a tour last winter for 30 farmers, who flew both ways, taking advantage of last winter's excursion air rates. They visited England, France, Italy, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Denmark. This was followed by a party of 32 midwestern housewives. A number of similar groups are planning tours this coming winter, ECA says.

Travel by Americans is an important dollar earner for Europe, ECA points out, and it supplements the over-all recovery program.

Investment of American Private Capital Abroad

Statement by Under Secretary Webb¹

I am glad to have this opportunity to testify before your Committee on behalf of proposed legislation to stimulate the investment of American private capital in underdeveloped areas of the world.

Private American investors constitute the largest potential source of investment capital in the world. If this program succeeds in stimulating the flow of investments abroad up to the levels attained during the 1920's relative to our national income, we will be making net annual private investments abroad of at least 2.5 billion dollars. These investments will be of mutual advantage to investors as well as to the people of the countries in which the investments are made, and ultimately to the United States. All of this will be without burden to the American taxpayer.

The bill which is before you is intended to stimulate this flow and constitutes an important element in a comprehensive program to aid the people

of underdeveloped areas in their efforts to utilize more effectively their human and natural resources. This general program was proposed by the President in his inaugural address last January as the fourth major course of action which he believed we should take in our international relations. The other three points were (1) continued support to the United Nations and its related agencies, (2) continuance of our programs for world recovery, and (3) the strengthening of freedom-loving nations against the dangers of aggression. In proposing the fourth point the President made the following comments:

... we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas.

... we should make available to peace-loving peoples the benefits of our store of technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life. And, in cooperation with other nations, we should foster capital investment in areas needing development.

Our aim should be to help the free peoples of the world, through their own efforts, to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens.

¹ Made before the House Banking and Currency Committee on Aug. 19, 1945, and released to the press on the same date.

August 29, 1949

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You will note that the program proposed has two broad aspects both leading toward the goal of economic development. One aspect involves the interchange among nations of technical knowledge and skill. A bill designed to authorize an expanded program for such exchanges is now pending before the Foreign Affairs Committee. The other aspect of the program involves the fostering of capital investment.

The Point 4 Program is designed to benefit both the peoples of the underdeveloped areas and the rest of the world, including ourselves, as well. The political instability and tensions, which exist in many areas of the world, grow out of extreme poverty and frustration of hopes for economic betterment. The secure growth of democracy in these areas is dependent upon a realization by their people that they can better their economic conditions and still maintain their democratic institutions and their freedom and dignity as individuals.

In the last year, we have seen the march of Soviet Communism halted in Europe. In the last year, however, we also have seen the greater part of China fall under a Communism which appears to be in large measure Soviet inspired and directed.

We know that Communism and other antidemocratic ideologies make little or no appeal to peoples which are prosperous and which have a high degree of modern material civilization. We know that they appeal with peculiar force in those regions where ignorance, poverty, and hunger prevail, and where most of the things that we regard as necessities are either unknown or are luxuries beyond the reach of all but a favored few. Those regions, however, comprise a large part of the surface of the world.

Our desires for an expanding world economy are also to a considerable extent dependent upon the success of efforts to increase the means of production in these areas. Their development will result in an increase and a better balance in world trade, which will have particular significance for the recovery of Europe and for our own economy. At the same time by assisting in this effort we can increase our security by associating stronger nations with us in the cause of human freedom and by the strengthening of the United Nations which will occur through its participation in constructive action for economic development.

We recognize that the principal effort for economic development must come from the underdeveloped countries themselves. We cannot and should not assume this responsibility ourselves. We can, however, assist in various ways. Although the bulk of the financing of development projects must come from local sources, foreign capital is an essential element. The International Bank, and in appropriate cases, the Export-Import Bank can be expected to continue their activities in loaning funds for certain types of development

projects for which private financing is not available. These loans will assist the underdeveloped countries to expand such basic facilities as transportation, communications, and power, which in many cases are needed before private enterprises can be established.

Particular emphasis on the Point 4 Program is placed upon the need for increasing the flow of private investment. Private capital in this country is potentially the greatest external source of investment funds for development abroad. Furthermore a private investment carries with it the technical skills, managerial experience, organizational talents, and incentive which are essential to put capital to effective use. Our industrial technology is largely in the hands of private organizations and can best be put to work through private channels.

There are a number of obstacles which have prevented an outflow of United States private capital in recent years, in as great a volume as might have been anticipated. In large part these obstacles are the result of abnormal conditions following the war. The most significant obstacles appear to be unstable political conditions in many parts of the world, balance-of-payments problems leading to limitations on the ability to transfer earnings and capital, and various types of governmental restrictions imposed on foreign investments. If these obstacles are to be removed, a cooperative action on the part of capital-importing and capital-exporting countries is necessary. We are trying in a number of ways to exert our influence to alleviate the conditions which are deterring the flow of capital. We are exerting our influence toward more stabilized political conditions and more satisfactory economic relationships through our participation in the United Nations and its specialized agencies, through the European Recovery Program, through reciprocal trade agreements, and through other cooperative efforts with individual foreign countries.

We feel it is particularly important to secure a basic understanding with countries needing foreign investment as to the treatment which will be accorded to foreign capital by those countries. To this end we are actively engaged in the negotiation of bilateral treaties with foreign governments. These treaties provide that the property of investors will not be expropriated without prompt, adequate, and effective compensation, that investors will be given reasonable opportunity to remit their earnings and withdraw their capital, that they will have reasonable freedom to manage, operate, and control their enterprises, that they will enjoy security in the protection of their persons and property and nondiscriminatory treatment in the conduct of their business affairs.

I want to point out that we do not consider this program to be a one-sided arrangement. Although we fully recognize the need for giving an investor assurances as to the protection of his property we

(Continued on page 316)

Japanese Participation in International Relations Encouraged

On August 18, the Department of State issued the following statement:

A basic objective of the occupation in Japan is to foster among the Japanese Government and people a respect for the rights of other nations and governments. It is clear to the United States Government that by facilitating the progressive resumption by Japan of international relationships mutually beneficial to other peoples as well as to the Japanese people, this objective can be materially furthered.

Such international relationships require good will on both sides. Relations between nations are a two-way street. Because Japan is a defeated country under military occupation and because the Far Eastern Commission is the international body which formulates the policies, principles, and standards in conformity with which the fulfillment by Japan of its obligations under the terms of surrender may be accomplished, expression of general willingness to enter into even limited relationships with Japan tends to await the leadership of that body.

It was against this background that the United States proposed to the Far Eastern Commission that it take positive action recognizing that SCAP subject to his discretion and continued control has the authority to permit Japan to participate in international relationships such as conventions, meetings, consular arrangements, or other bilateral accords as Japan may be invited to participate in and as SCAP considers to be in the interest of the occupation.

From an examination of the record, it is clear that the Far Eastern Commission has not taken any action denying SCAP the authority to approve Japanese intercourse with the outside world. In fact, under the broad policies of the Far Eastern Commission SCAP is correctly allowing Japanese international relationships of a limited character. Not only will the Japanese through such participation acquire direct experience and knowledge of democratic practices, but also the vestiges of hatred and suspicion of the Japanese left over from the war will tend to be dissipated.

It is not the legal authority of the Far Eastern Commission which is important but rather the assumption of enlightened leadership by the Far Eastern Commission member governments. No matter what position the Far Eastern Commission takes, any government may still refuse to enter into relationships with Japan or deny Japanese access to its territory.

Likewise, the determination of whether or not

Japan should be invited to participate in international organizations or conferences lies with the member governments concerned.

Almost 4 years after the war it is obvious that increased participation by Japan in international relationships under the control of SCAP will be a measurable step toward achievement of the Allied objective to foster the growth of a democratic and peaceful Japan.

U.S.-U.K.-Canadian

Economic Discussions To Be Resumed

[Released to the press jointly with the Treasury Department August 19]

The State and Treasury Departments in a joint statement announced on August 19 that at the request of President Truman and Secretary of State Acheson, Secretary of the Treasury Snyder, the chairman of the National Advisory Council, will preside as host chairman at meetings beginning September 6, which will carry forward the discussions which Secretary Snyder held in London in July with Sir Stafford Cripps, British Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Douglas Abbott, Canadian Minister of Finance.

The British Foreign Minister, Ernest Bevin, and the Canadian Minister of External Affairs, Lester Pearson, will be in Washington throughout the talks and, together with Secretary Acheson, will take part in them.

Technical and fact-finding discussions among representatives of the three governments are scheduled to begin August 27. Under Secretary of State James E. Webb will head the United States delegation. The purpose of the meeting, as previously stated in the London communique,¹ is to discuss the balance-of-payments difficulties between the dollar and sterling areas and measures which could be taken to right the existing disequilibrium between the two areas, both in the long and the short term.

A steering committee consisting of Assistant Secretary of the Treasury Martin, Assistant Secretary of State Thorp, Assistant Administrator of ECA Bissell, and representatives of the Department of Commerce, the Department of Agriculture, and the Federal Reserve Board have been working for the past several weeks to coordinate the factual material required for the meetings.

The National Advisory Council and other interested Department heads will advise with the United States participants during the course of the talks.

It is hoped to conclude before the beginning of the International Bank and Monetary Fund meetings, September 13.

¹ BULLETIN of Aug. 8, 1949, p. 197.

Restoration and Protection of Allied-Owned Trade-Marks in Japan

[Released to the press by the FEC August 16]

The Far Eastern Commission at its 162d meeting on July 28, 1949, approved a decision setting forth a policy that will provide for the restoration of Allied-owned trade-mark rights which were lost as a result of the war, and for the protection of Allied trade-mark rights in Japan and elsewhere against infringement by the Japanese.¹

This policy decision, the 61st approved by the Far Eastern Commission in its 3 years of continuous session in Washington, falls into two parts: (1) provisions for the restoration to Allied owners of trade-mark rights that were lost during the war (paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 of the policy decision); (2) provisions to insure against Japanese piracy of Allied trade-mark rights and mis-marking of goods (paragraphs 4, 5, 6, and 7 of the policy decision).

Restoration of Allied Trade-Marks

At the outbreak of hostilities between Japan and the Allied countries, all trade-mark rights in Japan belonging to Allied nationals were seized under Japanese wartime laws applying to all Allied property rights. The new policy provides for the restoration of such rights, without payment of fees, upon request made by the owners to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. The registrations are to be extended from the date of restoration for a period equivalent to the unexpired period at the time they were lost. For example, an American trade-mark which had been registered in Japan for a 20-year period on December 7, 1931, still had 10 years to run on December 7, 1941, when it ceased to be effective because of the war. If, after the owner made request to the Supreme Commander and complied with procedure established by him under the terms of the policy, it were restored on November 15, 1949, it would remain in effect for 10 years from that date and expire on November 14, 1959. The date of loss is considered in the policy to be the date of

¹ For policy toward patents, utility models, and designs in Japan, see *Documents and State Papers* of May 1949, p. 749.

outbreak of hostilities between Japan and the country of the owner, or where applicable, the date after which the trade-mark right could no longer be exercised because of conditions arising out of World War II. An example of the latter case would be a Dutch trade-mark registration which terminated between September 1939 and December 1941, and could not be renewed because of the breakdown of communications resulting from the German occupation of the Netherlands.

Applications for trade-marks which had been filed by Allied nationals and were pending at the outbreak of hostilities will automatically be reinstated as pending applications without fee.

An Allied national who had filed the first application for a trade-mark in any country within 6 months previous to the date on which he could no longer file an application in Japan, may have 1 year from the effective date of this policy in which to file an application in Japan with a right of priority based on his first filing.

Prevention of Infringement by the Japanese

Before the war there was a serious problem in connection with Japanese copying of foreign designs and mis-marking of goods. This included infringement of trade-mark rights of foreigners in Japan and in areas in which Japanese goods competed. There were various methods of misleading buyers into purchasing Japanese articles. The appearance of original models would be reproduced in minute detail. Goods would be sold under labels which were confusing facsimiles or outright counterfeits of well-known trade-marks. Factories sometimes adopted the name of a foreign country and marked their goods accordingly, "Made in Sweden," etc. (Full advantage was taken of the fact that "USA" is the name of both a city and a county in Japan.) To attract Japanese consumers, established foreign trade names were sometimes used by Japanese companies on their own labels, as if they were names of types or materials.

During the occupation, the Japanese Government has on several occasions been directed by oc-

occupation authorities to halt infringement of Allied trade-marks by Japanese manufacturers in specific cases.

The new policy requires the Japanese Government to prevent future registration of marks which are confusingly similar to well-known foreign marks, and permits United Nations nationals to apply for cancellation of any such marks already registered. Application for cancellation of infringing marks will be made to the Japanese Bureau of Patents, which must deal expeditiously with them and, if the facts submitted are correct, cancel the contested registration.

The policy further provides that steps should be taken to assure that goods manufactured in Japan are not marked in a way that suggests that they are made in other countries, and that export goods are not marked so as to misrepresent their quantity, quality, or content. (Under present occupation regulations, all export goods are marked "Made in Occupied Japan".)

The policy concludes with a general provision requiring the protection of all existing or restored trade-mark rights in Japan which do not conflict with policies established by the FEC, and a provision making the policy applicable not only to actual trade-marks, but to "trade names and to commercial or corporate names or marks" as well.

Text of Policy Decision

1. Trade-mark rights in Japan which, at the date of the outbreak of hostilities between Japan and the country of the national concerned, belonged to nationals of countries at war with Japan should be restored upon request made within such reasonable period and in such manner as may be provided by the Supreme Commander. Restoration should be made without payment of any fees and should give the owners protection from the date of restoration for a period equivalent to the period of protection to which they were still entitled at the date of the outbreak of hostilities. When, as a result of conditions growing out of World War II, trade-mark rights of the national of a country at war with Japan could not be exercised before the date of outbreak of hostilities between Japan and the country of the national concerned, such rights shall be restored in accordance with the principles of this paragraph for a period equivalent to the period of protection to which those nationals were still entitled at the date when their rights could not be exercised.

2. Applications for trade-marks which were filed in

Japan by nationals of countries at war with Japan prior to the date of the outbreak of hostilities, but final action on which had not been completed at the time of the outbreak of hostilities, should, on request of such nationals, be reinstated as pending applications under the original filing date. No fees should be required for reinstatement.

3. A national of a country at war with Japan who had duly filed in any country the first application for a trade-mark not earlier than six months before the effective date of loss of the right to file trade-mark applications in Japan, or the effective date of loss of opportunity to exercise that right as the result of conditions growing out of World War II, should be entitled, within twelve months after the date as determined by the Supreme Commander, on which such nationals are again permitted to apply for trade-marks in Japan and to obtain legal services necessary for this purpose, to apply for corresponding rights in Japan with a right of priority based upon the previous first filing of the application.

4. The Japanese Government should adopt and enforce appropriate regulations to prevent registration in the future of marks which are confusingly similar to marks or names of foreign nationals which are used by such foreign nationals anywhere and are well-known in Japan.

5. Nationals of countries members of the United Nations should be permitted, within a reasonable period to be established by SCAP, to apply to the Japanese Bureau of Patents for the cancellation of the registration of any trade-mark registered in Japan which so resembles a trade-mark or trade name previously used by the applicant and which is well-known in Japan as to be likely to cause confusion or mistake or to deceive purchasers. The Japanese Bureau of Patents should deal expeditiously with these applications and, if the facts presented by the applicant are found to be correct, cancel registration of such trade-marks.

6. Steps should be taken to assure that merchandise manufactured in Japan should not be marked or advertised so as to suggest that it is made elsewhere than in Japan.

7. Steps should also be taken to assure that goods exported from Japan are not so marked or otherwise described as to convey a false impression of their quantity, quality or content.

8. Trade-mark rights in Japan which now exist, or which are restored, or which are newly acquired during the period of occupation should be protected, except where the continued protection of such rights is in conflict with policies established in accordance with the Terms of Reference of the Far Eastern Commission.

9. The foregoing provisions should apply, wherever applicable, to trade names and to commercial or corporate names or marks.

Soviet Reaction Shows Value of Voice of America

by George V. Allen, Assistant Secretary for Public Affairs¹

Radio broadcasting inside the United States is a private industry. I hope it always will be. I hope the Government never begins to encroach on this field of private enterprise, for freedom of information is the most precious possession we have.

This is my answer to the frequent query on why the Voice of America programs, part of my responsibility in the State Department's program of International Information, are not beamed so they can be conveniently heard in the United States. Scripts of all of our programs, in English translation, are available on request, and we have a good many requests for them.

Reds Try To Choke It

As to the companion inquiry of how effective this activity is behind the so-called iron curtain, my best answer at the moment is that the Soviet Government is now devoting approximately four times the capital equipment in transmitters, monitoring stations and so forth, and 10 times the manpower to jam our programs in their effort to block them off from reception in the critical areas. They would hardly go to this trouble if the programs were not effective.

The Voice of America, quite understandably, seems to have captured the greatest American interest among the many activities of our international information and educational program.

A newspaper reporter from my home State of North Carolina said to me the other day, "I've heard a lot about the Voice of America, but I've never really understood it. Please explain who or what is the Voice? Do you do the broadcasting yourself? If so, the Voice of America sure has a good North Carolina accent."

Some time ago, I made a speech in Detroit on the subject of the Voice of America, and at the end the chairman of the meeting said: "You've told us why the Voice, but you haven't yet told us what it is."

¹ Reprinted from The Washington Sunday Star of Aug. 7, 1949.

It might be worthwhile, therefore, for me to take advantage of this guest column to try to explain as clearly as I can just what the Voice of America is.

The Voice of America is the title given to each of the 35 or more radio programs sent out each day, in 20 languages, to various parts of the world by short-wave transmitters.

In 1942, shortly after Pearl Harbor, the seven corporations and private individuals who owned short-wave broadcasting transmitters in the United States sent representatives to Washington to place their facilities at the disposal of the Government for the war effort.

In 20 Languages

They owned 13 short-wave transmitters, the only ones capable of broadcasting programs from the United States which could be heard overseas, but equally important, each of these transmitters had an established and internationally recognized wave length in the restricted short-wave spectrum. These valuable wave lengths were also offered freely to the Government.

After a good deal of discussion among various officials in Washington, the President finally decided to establish two wartime agencies, the Office of War Information, under Elmer Davis, and the Office of Inter-American Affairs, under Nelson Rockefeller, to take charge of all of the American Government's efforts to win support among foreign peoples for the United States and our war effort.

Mr. Rockefeller's office was responsible for this work in Latin America and Mr. Davis' office everywhere else.

Wartime Activity

The two offices took over the short-wave facilities, and, in addition, constructed 20 powerful Government-owned transmitters. But the radio operation, while perhaps the most widely known,

was by no means a major part of the total operations of these two offices. They established some 70 or 80 offices overseas, including posts in each of the neutral and friendly capitals of the world. All the principal means of mass communication (press, radio, and motion pictures) were used in an effort to tell foreigners about the United States and explain to them our war effort. Libraries and reading rooms were set up in the key cities abroad. In addition an educational exchange program was established, under which we encouraged and, to a limited extent, gave financial assistance to enable foreign students, journalists, technicians and other key persons to visit the United States. A number of American professors, lecturers and technicians were sent abroad to tell foreigners about the United States and to assist certain foreign countries with our technical know-how in the fields of agriculture, health, education, metallurgy and other subjects of direct importance to the war effort. An added purpose was to build good will and harmony among the Allies.

The only regular means by which our information could reach the enemy peoples of Germany, Italy and Japan was through short-wave broadcasts. In the theaters of military operations, such as North Africa, Italy and France, the radio broadcasts, from temporary or mobile transmitters, were directed not only toward enemy countries, but also toward the local populations in areas where American troops were stationed. In these theaters the OWI activity was placed under direct control of the military commanders and became an important arm of military operations.

Functions Transferred

A large majority of these broadcasts were in foreign languages. As a means of clear identification, in an atmosphere filled with broadcasts, the speakers began and ended each program with the announcement, "This is the Voice of America." I do not know who thought up the name, but it was a natural, and it has stuck.

When the war was over, the functions of both OWI and OIAA were transferred to the State Department, and Secretary Byrnes was given the job of deciding what to continue and what to liquidate. William Benton, appointed Assistant Secretary of State, found himself serving as executor and executioner. In 2 years he reduced the number of employees from 13,000 to 2,000. At one point Congress suddenly cut off all further appropriations, with hundreds of employees still overseas.

While the Voice of America never actually went off the air, it was taken for granted by most Americans that once the war had been won, all of our wartime information activities overseas could gradually be terminated. The Allies had coop-

erated harmoniously enough to win the victory, and it was hoped they would continue to do so during the peace.

It soon became evident, however, that this hope would not materialize. Relations between the countries of Eastern Europe and the West became more and more frigid, until a cold war was upon us in full blast.

Some Americans felt that the programs should be continued anyway, as a worthwhile adjunct to the conduct of our foreign relations in peacetime, but a majority of Congress was not convinced until it was clear that there was a great deal of misunderstanding of American motives overseas, not only in Eastern Europe, but elsewhere as well. Early in 1948, Congress passed the Smith-Mundt Act, providing a legal and continuing basis for the overseas information and educational exchange programs. The State Department was told to carry on the work with renewed emphasis.

Today, two separate but closely related activities are carried on under the Smith-Mundt Act by the State Department. In the overseas information program we not only continue the Voice of America radio broadcasts but we also use, wherever possible, documentary motion picture films, posters, pamphlets, photographs, and various other means to give foreigners correct information about the United States. In addition, we continue our important educational exchange activities. We encourage the increased exchange of students, technicians, and other persons between the United States and foreign countries, we give a small but significant support to American schools in Latin America, and we maintain most of the American libraries established abroad during the war.

All of this activity adds up to our program of International Information and Educational Exchange. The Voice of America is merely the radio broadcasts, which is about one-fourth of the total program in terms of money.

The State Department asked Congress a few months ago, for \$36,000,000 for the entire Information and Educational Exchange program for the fiscal year which began on July 1, 1949. Congress voted \$34,000,000 for this purpose. Practically every newspaper article written on the subject at the time carried a headline: "Voice Receives \$2,000,000 Cut." Actually, the whole program was cut by this amount, and the Voice, i. e., the radio broadcasts, merely took its proportionate share along with the other activities.

I am often asked, "Why can't we in the United States hear the Voice of America broadcasts?" There are two principal reasons. First, the broadcasts are beamed on short-wave directional antennae toward particular areas overseas from transmitters near New York, Boston, Cleveland, and San Francisco. While it is difficult, it is not impossible to pick up the program on a short-wave receiver in the United States. However, 85 per-

cent of our programs are in foreign languages, by announcers speaking Polish, Russian, Czech, Chinese, Persian, etc., so if you happen to get the program, the chances are that you would not recognize it. The Department is glad to furnish full schedules and wave lengths on request.

As noted above, scripts of all our programs, in English translation, are publicly available.

I may add that if private industry again decides to reenter the short-wave field, I hope it will be given every encouragement. At present the field is not financially profitable, and only one such broadcaster, in Boston, remains on the air. The State Department continues to lease all the other private-owned short-wave transmitters for the time being.

Another frequent inquiry is: "Do you think you will succeed?" For those who ask the question in the sense of, "Will you solve the world crisis?" or even, "Can the Voice alone bring about a lasting peace?" the answer is, "Very probably not." The Voice and our other overseas information and educational activities are merely a part, and by no means the major part, of the total effort of the United States to achieve a stable and lasting world order. But they are an important part of this effort, and they may be a decisive one.

Additional Appropriations for Improving VOA Facilities Recommended

Statement by Secretary Acheson

[Released to the press August 17]

The Appropriations Committee of the House of Representatives in its report issued August 16 on the Fourth Deficiency Appropriation Bill has recommended an additional appropriation of \$11,320,000 for the construction and improvement of "Voice of America" facilities for international broadcasting.

The Department of State requested additional funds for this purpose in view of the fact that since April 25 the U.S.S.R. has been carrying on an all-out effort to jam Voice of America broadcasts—particularly, but not exclusively, those in the Russian language directed to the Soviet people.¹ More than 250 different jamming transmitters have been identified in the U.S.S.R., and many others not yet identified are believed to be in operation. It is now obvious that setting up this complex, costly jamming operation took many months of careful planning and that it must

¹ BULLETIN of May 15, 1949, p. 638 and of July 11, 1949, p. 32.

be looked upon as a long-range plan of the U.S.S.R. for isolating the Russian people even more completely from access to truth and fact about the outside world.

This jamming network can be used against Voice of America broadcasts to other parts of the world as well as the U.S.S.R. The Department has therefore had to take all phases of its responsibilities into account in the face of this unexpectedly great Soviet potential for jamming.

If the Congress approves the appropriation recommended by the House Committee, the new facilities and the improvement of existing facilities provided for will go a long way toward combatting and overcoming the current jamming.

This jamming is a direct violation of international telecommunications conventions to which the U.S.S.R. is a party, including the so-called Madrid and Cairo conventions.

U.S. Sends Representative to Ecuador on Earthquake Situation

Statement by Secretary Acheson

[Released to the press August 17]

Edward G. Miller, Jr., Assistant Secretary for American Republic Affairs, will go to Ecuador next week to express personally the sympathy of this government, to survey the situation brought about by the recent earthquake disaster¹ and to consult with President Galo Plaza.

The Board of Directors of the Export-Import Bank has expressed its willingness to consider extending credits to cover a part of the dollar cost of materials and equipment to be acquired in the United States for the needs of Ecuador in the reconstruction of essential facilities damaged by the disaster. The exact extent and character of the reconstruction requirements will need further investigation. Representatives of the Export-Import Bank shortly will proceed to Ecuador to study this problem on the spot.

Reports are beginning to be received regarding the magnitude of the calamity. In a statement before the Ecuadoran Congress, President Galo Plaza reported that of 228,000 people in the affected area, 100,000 are homeless and 6,000 are dead. He placed the total damage at some \$55,000,000 and estimated that the reconstruction of the city of Ambato alone will cost about \$7,000,000. The President of Ecuador has appointed commissions to appraise the damage and recommend reconstruction plans. In addition to the destruction of edifices, the extensive system of irrigation ditches of the region has been about 75

¹ BULLETIN of Aug. 22, p. 278.

percent destroyed which will affect corn, barley, and wheat cultivation. In Ambato the largest textile mill was about 60 percent destroyed while a smaller mill escaped serious damage. A large proportion of other industries in this city were destroyed or seriously damaged, while the same is reported to be true of important small handicraft industries in three smaller cities.

Through the Caribbean command of the United States Army, the American Red Cross has sent to Ecuador ample medical supplies, emergency sanitation equipment, and tentage for 3,000 homeless. United States Army medical personnel and American Red Cross disaster experts have been in the area since August 7. American personnel with the Institute of Inter-American Affairs Health and Sanitation Mission in Ecuador have actively participated in emergency relief activities.

The Department continues to receive reports of the interest of individual American citizens and groups in assisting Ecuador by voluntary contributions. I understand that a group of public-spirited citizens in Washington is appealing for monetary contributions to be sent to the Ecuador Relief Fund, care of the Pan American Union. It is hoped that similar efforts in other parts of the country will be coordinated with those of the Ecuador Relief Fund.

However, Ecuador's needs include not only disaster relief attended to by these efforts, but also the rehabilitation and reconstruction of roads, railways, factories, and irrigation systems which have been so seriously damaged. Imported equipment and materials will be required to re-equip and rebuild these facilities.

ECA Displays Information on European Recovery Program

[Released to the press by ECA on August 10]

Persons interested in the progress of countries participating in the European Recovery Program may obtain up-to-date information in a chart room opened recently at headquarters of the Economic Cooperation Administration.

The chart display, located in Room 408, 800 Connecticut Ave., NW., gives latest figures on European industrial production and other important economic data. Much of the material available in the chart room is similar to information disseminated by ECA through regular publications.

The chart room will be open to the public every weekday from 9 a. m. to 5:30 p. m.

Burmese Foreign Minister Visits U.S.

Statement by Secretary Acheson

[Released to the press August 17]

His Excellency the Foreign Minister of the Union of Burma, U. E. Maung, accompanied by the Burmese Ambassador at Washington, called on me Monday morning. I was greatly pleased to have had this opportunity to meet the Foreign Minister, who has been in Washington since last Saturday on a brief official visit.¹ During his visit the Foreign Minister has been engaged in a full and frank exchange of views with officers of our government on matters which are of mutual interest and concern to our two countries.

I am confident that the Foreign Minister's visit to this country will serve to strengthen the bonds of friendship and the cordial relations which exist between the Union of Burma and the United States.

U.S. and Mexico Sign Agricultural Workers Agreement

[Released to the press August 1]

An agreement was signed on August 1 by Leslie A. Wheeler, American Chargé d'Affaires in Mexico City, and Manuel Tello, Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs of Mexico, setting forth the conditions under which Mexican agricultural workers may be employed by American growers for temporary periods when the United States Employment Service, in connection with its over-all responsibilities for farm labor placement in this country, determines that there is an inadequate supply of domestic agricultural workers. Negotiations were conducted in Mexico City by representatives of the American Embassy, the Department of State, the United States Employment Service, and the Immigration and Naturalization Service. The agreement specifically provides that Mexican nationals shall not be employed to displace domestic agricultural workers nor to depress prevailing wage scales.

The new agreement will replace that of February 21, 1948,² which became inoperative after abrogation in October 1948, and differs from previous agricultural workers' agreements between the United States and Mexico in several important details. It provides for contracting, for limited periods of time, certain Mexican agricultural workers who are already in the United States.

¹ BULLETIN of Aug. 22, 1949, p. 276.

² BULLETIN of Mar. 7, 1948, p. 317. For an article by Daniel Goott discussing the employment of foreign workers in the U.S., see BULLETIN of July 18, 1949, p. 43.

Their immigration status will be regularized for the duration of their contracts only. They will be covered by the protective clauses established in the agreement, including the payment of prevailing wages, and at the end of the period of their employment will be returned to specified points in Mexico. Both governments consider that the agreement represents the most practicable solution of the problem of illegal entry into the United States of Mexican workers, as well as establishing a mutually satisfactory basis for their legal employment here.

If the need for agricultural workers, as determined by the United States Employment Service, is not filled by domestic workers first, and secondly by persons contracted in accordance with the procedure outlined above, workers may be contracted in Mexico and brought to the United States for temporary periods, at the end of which time they will be returned to the point of contracting in Mexico. The cities of Monterrey, Chihuahua, and Hermosillo have been designated as contracting centers in Mexico. Previous agricultural workers' agreements with Mexico did not specify points of contracting, but permitted Mexico to determine those points freely. This was often a source of friction and delay.

Under the new agreement, Mexican workers may be contracted for agricultural work in any state of the United States where the supply of domestic workers is determined to be inadequate. The agreement also provides a joint conciliation procedure for investigating cases of alleged noncompliance with the terms of individual work contracts, either on the part of workers or employers.

The agreement will be administered in the United States by the United States Employment Service of the Federal Security Agency and the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice.

Ireland Lifts Passport and Visa Restrictions

[Released to the press by ECA on August 3]

Further increase in travel by American businessmen, tourists, and others to Europe was predicted on August 3 by the Economic Cooperation Administration, following announcement that Ireland has lifted passport visa restrictions.

Ireland is the eleventh Marshall Plan country to facilitate international travel in this manner. The others are France, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and Italy.

While the passport is still necessary, the visas—signatures of inspectors—are no longer required for American visitors in those countries, eliminating much delay and inconvenience.

American tourist travel supplements the European Recovery Program by helping ERP countries in their efforts to earn dollars and balance their trade accounts, ECA pointed out. The Foreign Assistance Act specifies that the ECA Administrator, in cooperation with the Secretary of Commerce, shall encourage the development of travel by United States citizens to and within the participating countries. The Travel Branch, Office of International Trade, Department of Commerce, is directing the travel stimulation program for ECA.

Control of Persons Entering or Leaving the United States

A PROCLAMATION¹

WHEREAS Proclamation No. 2523 of November 14, 1941, issued under and by virtue of the authority vested in the President by the act of May 22, 1918, 40 Stat. 559, as amended by the act of June 21, 1941, 55 Stat. 252, prescribes regulations which impose certain restrictions and prohibitions, in addition to those otherwise provided by law, upon the departure of persons from and their entry into the United States; and

WHEREAS I find that the interests of the United States, within the meaning of the said act of June 21, 1941, and by reason of the continued existence of the conditions set forth in section 1 thereof, require that the said proclamation be amended as hereinafter set forth:

Now, THEREFORE, I, Harry S. Truman, President of the United States of America, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in the President by the act of Congress above mentioned, do proclaim as follows:

1. The said Proclamation No. 2523 is hereby amended so that paragraph numbered (3) thereof, together with the succeeding unnumbered paragraph, shall read as follows:

"(3) (a) After the effective date of the rules and regulations hereinafter authorized, no alien shall enter or attempt to enter the United States unless he is in possession of a valid unexpired permit to enter issued by the Secretary of State, or by an appropriate officer designated by the Secretary of State, or is exempted from obtaining a permit to enter, in accordance with rules and regulations which the Secretary of State, with the concurrence of the Attorney General, is hereby authorized to prescribe.

"(b) No permit to enter shall be issued to an

¹ Amendment of Proc. 2523, 14 Fed. Reg. 5173.

the fiscal year ending June 30, 1950, and for each fiscal year thereafter have been determined in accordance with the law to be, and shall be, as follows:

Country	Quota
Greece	310
Italy	5799
Rumania	291
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	2798
Israel	100
Jordan (formerly Transjordan)	100
Syria	100
Lebanon	100

The combined immigration quota of 123 established for Syria and the Lebanon by Proclamation No. 2283 of April 28, 1938, is hereby abolished.

The immigration quotas proclaimed above are designed solely for the purpose of compliance with the pertinent provisions of the said Immigration Act of 1924 and are not to be regarded as having any significance extraneous to such purpose.

Proclamation No. 2283 of April 28, 1938, is amended accordingly.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the Seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this 27th day of July in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and forty-nine, and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and seventy-fourth.

HARRY S. TRUMAN

By the President:

DEAN ACHESON,
Secretary of State.

U.S. Delegation to Meeting on Herring—Continued from page 294

Herring fisheries are as old as the settlements of northwestern Europe and have played an important role in its history. In the period between the twelfth and seventeenth centuries, wool and herring were the key industries in this area. The economic history of England was considerably influenced by the herring industry, and Holland's first merchant marine and navy was composed of ships from the fleets that were in the habit of sailing the North Sea in search of herring. For many years herring fisheries were essential in the economy of all Scandinavian countries.

During the late 1930's, Japan, the United States, and Canada together accounted for more than 50 percent of the world's total landings of herring and allied species, despite the traditional importance of European fisheries. With the termination of Japan's activity in the herring industry as a result of World War II, the United States has become the largest producer of herring and herring-like fishes in the world and has a substantial interest, therefore, in keeping abreast of all developments affecting production and marketing.

alien if it appears to the satisfaction of the issuing officer, or the Secretary of State, that the alien's entry would be prejudicial to the interests of the United States within the meaning of the rules and regulations hereinbefore authorized to be prescribed by the Secretary of State with the concurrence of the Attorney General.

"(c) Notwithstanding the provisions of the foregoing paragraphs (a) and (b), no alien applying for admission, even with a valid permit to enter, shall enter or be permitted to enter the United States if it appears to the satisfaction of the Attorney General that such entry would be prejudicial to the interests of the United States."

2. All existing regulations promulgated under or pursuant to the said Proclamation No. 2523 are hereby ratified and confirmed and shall be construed to have the same effect as if included in such proclamation: *Provided, however*, that nothing contained herein shall be deemed to limit lawful authority to amend or modify such regulations.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the Seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this 17th day of August in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and forty-nine, and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and seventy-fourth.

HARRY S. TRUMAN

By the President:

DEAN ACHESON,
Secretary of State.

Immigration Quotas

A PROCLAMATION¹

WHEREAS the Secretary of State, the Secretary of Commerce, and the Attorney General have reported to the President that pursuant to the duty imposed and the authority conferred upon them by sections 11 and 12 of the Immigration Act of 1924, approved May 26, 1924 (43 Stat. 159-161), and Reorganization Plan No. V (54 Stat. 1238), they jointly have made the revision provided for in section 12 of the said act and have fixed, in accordance therewith, immigration quotas as hereinafter set forth:

Now, THEREFORE, I, HARRY S. TRUMAN, President of the United States of America, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the aforesaid act of Congress, do hereby proclaim and make known that the annual quotas of the nationalities indicated for the remainder of

¹ Proc. 2846, 14 Fed. Reg. 4707.

Investment of Capital Abroad—Continued from page 306

also believe that the underdeveloped areas are entitled on their part to expect that private investments will make a genuine contribution to their national welfare. This is not a program of exploitation for foreign profit. It is a program for mutual benefits. We consider that the private investor has an obligation to give due regard to the welfare of the persons dependent upon his enterprises, to contribute his fair share of taxes to the local community, to conserve as well as to develop local resources, to observe local laws, and so to conduct his enterprise that the local economy will derive full benefit from the enterprise.

Treaties alone, however, cannot give an investor the assurances which he may legitimately require in order to risk his capital abroad. With the best faith in the world a foreign government cannot guarantee that it will have sufficient dollars actually available to permit investors to remit their profits. It cannot guarantee that dollars will be available to pay promptly for property should it become necessary in the public interest for it to be expropriated. It cannot guarantee against the possibility of confiscation or destruction in the event of internal disturbance or war. We believe, therefore, that guaranties by the United States Government against certain risks peculiar to investment in foreign countries will have an important effect on the decisions of potential investors to send their money abroad. The bill which you are now considering authorizes the Export-Import Bank to make such guaranties. It is important to keep in mind that the legislation does not permit guaranties covering ordinary business risks. It does not assure anyone of a profit, it does not insure anyone against loss. It is also important to keep in mind that the purpose of the legislation is not simply to provide an outlet for surplus capital, but it is intended to stimulate investment which will be productive and will contribute to economic development abroad. In issuing guaranties the Bank will give full consideration to the contribution that the investment can be expected to make to economic development. Furthermore, we do not intend to impose our own plans of economic development on foreign countries, and we would not, therefore, guarantee investments if those countries themselves did not consider that the investment would make a contribution to their economic development.

This legislation is a part of a program which involves cooperative action on our part and on the part of other countries for our mutual advantage. I urge you to give it your approval.

President Withdraws Obsolete Treaties From the Senate

To the Senate of the United States:

A number of the treaties now pending in the Senate have become obsolete because of the signature of new treaties revising those instruments or because of other changed conditions affecting their provisions since they were submitted to the Senate. One of the older pending instruments, a convention concerning seafarers' pensions, I transmitted to the Senate with a statement that I did not request at that time advice and consent to ratification. No basis has since been found for recommending its approval.

With a view to placing the Calendar of Treaties on a current basis, I, therefore, desire to withdraw from the Senate the following treaties:

Notes exchanged at Washington May 3, 1944, between the Governments of the United States of America and Canada, amending in its application article V of the treaty signed on January 11, 1900, between the United States of America and His Britannic Majesty, to permit an additional diversion of the waters of the Niagara River above the Falls (Executive E, 78th Congress, 2d Session).

Protocol signed in Ottawa on October 3, 1945, to be annexed to, and to form a part of, the extradition treaty between the United States of America and Canada, signed in Washington on April 29, 1942 (Executive I, 79th Congress, 1st Session).

Convention (no. 71) concerning seafarers' pensions, adopted by the International Labor Conference at its twenty-eighth session, held at Seattle, June 6-29, 1946 (Executive W, 80th Congress, 1st Session).

Convention (no. 72) concerning vacation holidays with pay for seafarers, adopted by the International Labor Conference at its twenty-eighth session, held at Seattle, June 6-29, 1946 (Executive X, 80th Congress, 1st Session).

Convention (no. 75) concerning crew accommodation on board ship, adopted by the International Labor Conference at its twenty-eighth session, held at Seattle, June 6-29, 1946 (Executive BB, 80th Congress, 1st Session).

Convention (no. 76) concerning wages, hours of work on board ship and manning, adopted by the International Labor Conference at its twenty-eighth session, held at Seattle, June 6-29, 1946 (Executive DD, 80th Congress, 1st Session).

International wheat agreement, which was open for signature in Washington from March 6 until April 1, 1948 (Executive F, 80th Congress, 2d Session).

HARRY S. TRUMAN

THE WHITE HOUSE,
August 10, 1949.

Electrical Engineer Visits Mexico

Commodore Penn Leary Carroll, USN Ret., has been awarded a grant by the Department of State to enable him to accept an invitation to serve as visiting professor of electrical engineering for the coming year at the Technological Institute of Monterrey, Mexico. Commodore Carroll, who was formerly with the Naval War College, has left Washington for Monterrey, where he will assume his duties at the Institute early in September.

Graduate Students To Visit Other Americas

Twenty-six American graduate students have received United States Government scholarships for study in 10 of the other American Republics for the coming academic year. These awards are made by the Department of State under authority of The International Information and Educational Exchange Act of 1948, the Act for Cooperation with the other American Republics, and the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations.

Those receiving awards are:

Harry Lee King, Jr., Virginia, to study literature in Argentina
 Mary Lucy Mendenhall, Washington, D.C., to study political science in Argentina
 Morris Bornstein, Michigan, to study economics in Brazil
 Edward Irving Coher, Massachusetts, to study entomology in Brazil
 Charles Ekker, Jr., Louisiana, to study sociology in Brazil
 Herman B. Slutzkin, New York, to study literature in Brazil
 Marie Pope Wallis, New Mexico, to study literature in Brazil
 Jordan Marten Young, New York, to study political science in Brazil
 Thomas W. Palmer, Jr., New York, to study political science in Brazil
 Albert J. Brouse, North Carolina, to study literature in Brazil
 Emily Frances Brady, New York, to study literature in Chile
 Mary J. Cannizzo, New York, to study political science in Chile
 Thomas Frank Carrol, New York, to study agriculture in Chile
 John Parker Harrison, Jr., California, to study industry in Colombia
 Frank Bruce Lamb, Colorado, to study agricultural economics in Costa Rica
 Pedro Nicholas Trakas, North Carolina, to study literature in Cuba
 Don G. Groves, New York, to study agricultural economy in the Dominican Republic
 Lucy Axelbank, Washington, D.C., to study political science in Mexico
 Daniel N. Cardena, New York, to study philology in Mexico
 James T. Halpin, Jr., New York, to study agriculture in Mexico
 Lyle Nelson McAlister, California, to study political science in Mexico
 Eldred Joseph Renk, Idaho, to study literature in Mexico
 Betty Warren Starr, North Carolina, to study anthropology in Mexico
 James Larkin Wyatt, Texas, to study literature in Mexico
 Thomas R. Ford, Louisiana, to study sociology in Peru
 Philip Bates Taylor, Jr., California, to study political science in Uruguay.

**Exchange of Visitors
With Latin America****Chilean Seismology Professor**

Hernán Bertling Hederra, Civil Engineer, and Professor of Applied Seismology at the University of Chile, has arrived in Washington to begin a 3-month visit in the United States for the purpose of conferring with officials of the Bureau of Standards and with specialists in his field in various cities concerning modern methods in use in this country in seismology engineering. His visit was facilitated by a grant-in-aid awarded by the Department of State in cooperation with the Bureau of Standards.

Peruvian Agricultural Engineer

Carlos A. Barreda y Ramos, Agricultural Engineer, and Chairman of the National Committee for the Protection of Wildlife in Peru, has arrived in Washington for a 3-month stay in this country under the travel-grant program of the Department of State. He is interested in familiarizing himself with various phases of the work of the Department of Agriculture and with such agencies as the Fish and Wildlife, the Soil Conservation, and the Forest Conservation Services, the Audubon Society, and other similar institutions in this country. He plans to attend the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Natural Resources at Lake Success from August 17 to September 6, where he is to read a paper on the natural resources of Peru.

Ecuadoran Pediatrician

Dr. Julio Enrique Toral Vega, Professor of Pediatrics and Child Care at the School of Medicine, University of Cuenca, Ecuador, has arrived in Washington to begin a series of visits to children's hospitals and schools of pediatrics in this country. As director of the Anti-tuberculosis League of Cuenca, he is also interested in observing the functioning of tuberculosis sanitariums here. His visit was facilitated by a grant-in-aid from the Department of State.

Professor of English Visits Brazil

The Reverend Harold F. Ryan, S. J., Associate Professor of English at Loyola University, Los Angeles, has been awarded a grant by the Department of State to enable him to serve as visiting professor in American literature at the Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro, for a period of 3 months beginning in August.

Statements and Addresses of the Month

Ambassador W. Averell Harriman...	On the subject of the Military Assistance Program. Not printed. Text issued as press release 591 of August 2.	Address made before the House Foreign Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives on August 2.
Ambassador W. Averell Harriman...	On the subject of the Military Assistance Program. Not printed. Text issued as press release 619 of August 11.	Address made before Foreign Relations and Armed Services Committees of the Senate on August 11.
Francis H. Russell, Director, Office of Public Affairs.	On the subject of United States policy toward China. Not printed. Text issued as press release 626 of August 12.	Address made before the Institute of International Affairs, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo., on August 12.

THE CONGRESS

Legislation

Conduct of Ilse Koch War Crimes Trial. Hearings before the Investigations Subcommittee of the Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments, United States Senate, Eightieth Congress, Second Session, pursuant to S. Res. 189, a resolution authorizing the Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments to carry out certain duties. Part 5. September 28; December 8 and 9, 1948. iv, 281 pp.

Extension of European Recovery Program. Hearings before the Committee on Foreign Affairs, House of Representatives, Eighty-first Congress, First Session, on H. R. 2362 and H. R. 3748, a bill to amend the Economic Cooperation Act of 1948. Part 2. February 21, 22, 23, 24, March 11 and 14, 1949. ii, 400 pp.

Amending the Displaced Persons Act of 1948. Hearings before Subcommittee No. 1 of the Committee on the Judiciary, House of Representatives, Eighty-first Congress, First Session, on H. R. 1344, a bill to amend the Displaced Persons Act of 1948. March 2, 4, and 9, 1949. Serial No. 5. v, 239 pp.

Extension of Reciprocal Trade Agreements Act. Hearings before the Committee on Finance, United States Senate, Eighty-first Congress, First Session, on H. R. 1211, an act to extend the authority of the President under Section 350 of the Tariff Act of 1930, as amended, and for other purposes. Part 2. February 24, 25, 26, 28, and March 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 8, 1949. vii, 615 pp.

The North Atlantic Treaty. Message from the President of the United States transmitting a copy of the North Atlantic Treaty signed at Washington on April 4, 1949. S. Exec. L, 81st Cong., 1st sess. 13 pp.

Requesting Information from the Secretary of State Regarding Denial of Visas. H. Rept. 504, 81st Cong., 1st sess. 2 pp.

THE DEPARTMENT

Appointment of Officers

Richard R. Brown as Executive Director of Economic Affairs in the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Economic Affairs, effective July 28, 1949.

Harry H. Schwartz as Executive Secretary to the Policy Planning Staff in the Office of the Secretary, effective August 8, 1949.

Walter S. Surrey as Deputy Coordinator for Foreign Military Assistance Programs in the office of the Secretary, effective April 1, 1949.

THE FOREIGN SERVICE

Embassy at Canton

Evacuates Staff to Hong Kong¹

In view of the present Communist threat to this region, the American Embassy is evacuating its staff to Hong Kong. Officers of the Embassy,

¹ Printed from telegraphic text.

however, will commute daily to Canton to carry out their normal duties so long as the situation permits.

The American Consulate General, in accordance with instructions from the Department of State, will close on August 19 and begin evacuation of its American staff. Consular officers, however, will be available to assist American citizens to evacuate and to perform for them essential consular services as long as possible. Thereafter the American Consulate General at Hong Kong will assume the functions of this Consulate General.

Confirmations

On July 29, 1949, the Senate confirmed the nomination of Paul A. Porter to be representative of the United States on the Conciliation Commission for Palestine which was established by resolution of the General Assembly of the United Nations December 11, 1948.

Resignation of Herman B. Baruch as Ambassador to the Netherlands

The President accepted the resignation of Herman B. Baruch as United States Ambassador to the Netherlands. For the texts of the President's and Mr. Baruch's letters see White House press release of August 19, 1949.

Consular Offices

The office at Vitória, Brazil, was raised to the rank of Consulate, effective June 20, 1949.

The American Consulate at Meshed, Iran, was opened to the public on July 1, 1949.

PUBLICATIONS

Recent Releases

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Address requests direct to the Superintendent of Documents, except in the case of free publications, which may be obtained from the Department of State.

Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation. Treaty and Other International Acts Series 1871. Pub. 3425. 107 pp. 25¢.

Treaty and Protocol between the United States and China—Signed at Nanking November 4, 1946; entered into force November 30, 1948; And Exchange of Notes—Signed at Nanking November 29, 1948.

Mexican Agricultural Workers: Legal Employment of Certain Workers Who Entered the United States Illegally. Treaties and Other International Acts Series 1857. Pub. 3432. 10 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Mexico Replacing Agreements of June 2, 1944, and Jan. 9, 1945—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Mexico City March 10, 1947; entered into force March 10, 1947.

Agricultural Experiment Station in Ecuador. Treaties and Other International Acts Series 1875. Pub. 3434. 18 pp. 20¢.

Agreement between the United States and Ecuador Superseding Memorandum of Understanding of August 12, 1942—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Quito January 26 and April 16, 1948; entered into force April 16, 1948.

Participation of the United States Government in International Conferences, July 1, 1947–June 30, 1948. International Organization and Conference Series 1, 7. Pub. 3443. 375 pp. 65¢.

Contains brief accounts of international conferences and meetings in which the United States Government participated officially during the period July 1, 1947–June 30, 1948, including the composition of the United States delegations.

Selected Publications and Materials Relating to American Foreign Policy. April 1949. Pub. 3495. 22 pp. Free.

Cumulative list of the Department of State publications that cover United States participation in the United Nations and document such significant policies as those concerned with the maintenance of peace, the occupation of Germany and Japan, and economic reconstruction.

Compulsory Jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice. International Organization and Conference Series III, 31. Pub. 3540. 21 pp. 15¢.

Reprint from *Documents and State Papers*, June 1948 with revisions June 1949.

U.S. National UNESCO News, July 1949. Pub. 3554. 12 pp. 10¢ a copy; \$1 a year domestic, \$1.35 foreign.

The monthly publication of the United States National Commission for UNESCO.

The Military Assistance Program. General Foreign Policy Series 13. Pub. 3563. 41 pp. 15¢.

Contains explanation of proposed program; United States policy objectives; cost, impact, administration, and duration of the program.

Protection of Foreign Interests in the United States, July 1, 1949. General Foreign Policy Series 14. Pub. 3571. 14 pp. Free.

Lists countries whose interests are protected by the United States and the diplomatic or consular establishment of United States charged with protection of foreign interests.

Diplomatic List, July 1949. Pub. 3572. 159 pp. 30¢ a copy; \$3.25 a year domestic, \$4.50 a year foreign.

Monthly list of foreign diplomatic representatives in Washington, with their addresses.

Contents

United Nations and Specialized Agencies

Harmony To Save Succeeding Generations From the Scourge of War. By Ambassa- dor Warren R. Austin	283
Resolutions on the Palestine Question	286
Provisional Agenda of the Fourth Regular Session of the General Assembly.	287
Two Committees Established by U.N.	289
U.N. Documents: A Selected Bibliography . .	289
The United States in the United Nations. . .	290

National Security

Testimony Before the House Foreign Affairs Committee on Military Assistance:	
Status of Western Union Development. . .	295
Aid to Italy, France, and Norway	296
Statement by Ambassador James Clem- ent Dunn.	296
Statement by Ambassador James Bruce . .	298
Statement by Ambassador Charles Ulrich Bay	299

Occupation Matters

Germany's Role in World Markets.	302
The German Elections:	
A Victory for Moderation and Common Sense. Statement by Secretary Ache- son.	303
Analysis of the Elections	303
Japanese Participation in International Rela- tions Encouraged	307
Restoration and Protection of Allied-Owned Trade-Marks in Japan	308

Economic Affairs

ECA Promotes Off-Season Travel to Europe .	304
U.S.-U.K.-Canadian Economic Discussions To Be Resumed.	307
U.S. Sends Representative to Ecuador on Earthquake Situation. Statement by Secretary Acheson.	312
ECA Displays Information on European Re- covery Program.	313
Ireland Lifts Passport and Visa Restrictions .	314

Treaty Information

U.S. and Mexico Sign Agricultural Workers Agreement	313
President Withdraws Obsolete Treaties From the Senate	316

General Policy

Burmese Foreign Minister Visits U.S. State- ment by Secretary Acheson	313
Control of Persons Entering or Leaving the United States. A Proclamation.	314
Immigration Quotas. A Proclamation. . . .	315

International Information and Cultural Affairs

Soviet Reaction Shows Value of Voice of Amer- ica. By Assistant Secretary Allen	310
Additional Appropriations for Improving VOA Facilities Recommended. State- ment by Secretary Acheson.	312
Exchange of Visitors With Latin America. .	317

Technical Assistance

Technical Projects for Bizone of Germany. .	304
Investment of American Private Capital Abroad. Statement by Under Secre- tary Webb	305

International Organizations and Conferences

International Conference on Science Ab- stracting. By Verner W. Clapp	292
U.S. Delegation:	
International Meeting on Herring and Allied Species	294

The Congress

Additional Appropriations for Improving VOA Facilities Recommended. State- ment by Secretary Acheson.	312
Legislation	318

The Department

Appointment of Officers	318
-----------------------------------	-----

The Foreign Service

Embassy at Canton Evacuates Staff to Hong Kong	318
Resignation of Herman B. Baruch as Am- bassador to the Netherlands	319
Confirmations	319
Consular Offices	319

Publications

Recent Releases	319
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Contributors

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